An English Grammar

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AN ENGLISH GRAMMAR

For The Use Of

High School, Academy, And College Classes

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By

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PREFACE.

Of making many English grammars there is no end; nor should there be till theoretical scholarship and actual practice are more happily wedded. In this field much valuable work has already been accomplished; but it has been done largely by workers accustomed to take the scholar's point of view, and their writings are addressed rather to trained minds than to immature learners. To find an advanced grammar unencumbered with hard words, abstruse thoughts, and difficult principles, is not altogether an easy matter. These things enhance the difficulty which an ordinary youth experiences in grasping and assimilating the facts of grammar, and create a distaste for the study. It is therefore the leading object of this book to be both as scholarly and as practical as possible. In it there is an attempt to present grammatical facts as simply, and to lead the student to assimilate them as thoroughly, as possible, and at the same time to do away with confusing difficulties as far as may be.

To attain these ends it is necessary to keep ever in the foreground the *real basis of grammar*; that is, good literature. Abundant quotations from standard authors have been given to show the student that he is dealing with the facts of the language, and not with the theories of grammarians. It is also suggested that in preparing written exercises the student use English classics instead of "making up" sentences. But it is not intended that the use of literary masterpieces for grammatical purposes should supplant or even interfere with their proper use and real value as works of art. It will, however, doubtless be found helpful to alternate the regular reading and æsthetic study of literature with

a grammatical study, so that, while the mind is being enriched and the artistic sense quickened, there may also be the useful acquisition of arousing a keen observation of all grammatical forms and usages. Now and then it has been deemed best to omit explanations, and to withhold personal preferences, in order that the student may, by actual contact with the sources of grammatical laws, discover for himself the better way in regarding given data. It is not the grammarian's business to "correct:" it is simply to record and to arrange the usages of language, and to point the way to the arbiters of usage in all disputed cases. Free expression within the lines of good usage should have widest range.

It has been our aim to make a grammar of as wide a scope as is consistent with the proper definition of the word. Therefore, in addition to recording and classifying the facts of language, we have endeavored to attain two other objects,—to cultivate mental skill and power, and to induce the student to prosecute further studies in this field. It is not supposable that in so delicate and difficult an undertaking there should be an entire freedom from errors and oversights. We shall gratefully accept any assistance in helping to correct mistakes.

Though endeavoring to get our material as much as possible at first hand, and to make an independent use of it, we desire to express our obligation to the following books and articles:—

Meiklejohn's "English Language," Longmans' "School Grammar," West's "English Grammar," Bain's "Higher English Grammar" and "Composition Grammar," Sweet's "Primer of Spoken English" and "New English Grammar," etc., Hodgson's "Errors in the Use of English," Morris's "Elementary Lessons in

Historical English Grammar," Lounsbury's "English Language," Champney's "History of English," Emerson's "History of the English Language," Kellner's "Historical Outlines of English Syntax," Earle's "English Prose," and Matzner's "Englische Grammatik." Allen's "Subjunctive Mood in English," Battler's articles on "Prepositions" in the "Anglia," and many other valuable papers, have also been helpful and suggestive.

We desire to express special thanks to Professor W.D. Mooney of Wall & Mooney's Battle-Ground Academy, Franklin, Tenn., for a critical examination of the first draft of the manuscript, and to Professor Jno. M. Webb of Webb Bros. School, Bell Buckle, Tenn., and Professor W.R. Garrett of the University of Nashville, for many valuable suggestions and helpful criticism.

W.M. BASKERVILL.

J.W. SEWELL.

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INTRODUCTION.

So many slighting remarks have been made of late on the use of teaching grammar as compared with teaching science, that it is plain the fact has been lost sight of that grammar is itself a science. The object we have, or should have, in teaching science, is not to fill a child's mind with a vast number of facts that may or may not prove useful to him hereafter, but to draw out and exercise his powers of observation, and to show him how to make use of what he observes.... And here the teacher of grammar has a great advantage over the teacher of other sciences, in that the facts he has to call attention to lie ready at hand for every pupil to observe without the use of apparatus of any kind while the use of them also lies within the personal experience of every one.—Dr Richard Morris.

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The proper study of a language is an intellectual discipline of the highest order. If I except discussions on the comparative merits of Popery and Protestantism, English grammar was the most important discipline of my boyhood.—John Tyndall.

INTRODUCTION.

What various opinions writers on English grammar have given in answer to the question, *What is grammar?* may be shown by the following—

Definitions of grammar.

English grammar is a description of the usages of the English language by good speakers and writers of the present day.—Whitney

A description of account of the nature, build, constitution, or make of a language is called its grammar—Meiklejohn

Grammar teaches the laws of language, and the right method of using it in speaking and writing.—Patterson

Grammar is the science of *letter*; hence the science of using words correctly.—Abbott

The English word *grammar* relates only to the laws which govern the significant forms of words, and the construction of the sentence.—Richard Grant White

These are sufficient to suggest several distinct notions about English grammar—

Synopsis of the above.

(1) It makes rules to tell us how to use words.

(2) It is a record of usage which we ought to follow.

(3) It is concerned with the *forms* of the language.

(4) English *has* no grammar in the sense of forms, or inflections, but takes account merely of the nature and the uses of words in sentences.

The older idea and its origin.

Fierce discussions have raged over these opinions, and numerous works have been written to uphold the theories. The first of them remained popular for a very long time. It originated from the etymology of the word *grammar* (Greek *gramma*, writing, a letter), and from an effort to build up a treatise on English grammar by using classical grammar as a model.

Perhaps a combination of (1) and (3) has been still more popular, though there has been vastly more classification than there are forms.

The opposite view.

During recent years, (2) and (4) have been gaining ground, but they have had hard work to displace the older and more popular theories. It is insisted by many that the student's time should be used in studying general literature, and thus learning the fluent and correct use of his mother tongue. It is also insisted that the study and discussion of forms and inflections is an inexcusable imitation of classical treatises.

The difficulty.

Which view shall the student of English accept? Before this is answered, we should decide whether some one of the above theories must be taken as the right one, and the rest disregarded.

The real reason for the diversity of views is a confusion of two distinct things,—what the *definition* of grammar should be, and what the *purpose* of grammar should be.

The material of grammar.

The province of English grammar is, rightly considered, wider than is indicated by any one of the above definitions; and the student ought to have a clear idea of the ground to be covered.

Few inflections.

It must be admitted that the language has very few inflections at present, as compared with Latin or Greek; so that a small grammar will hold them all.

Making rules is risky.

It is also evident, to those who have studied the language historically, that it is very hazardous to make rules in grammar: what is at present regarded as correct may not be so twenty years from now, even if our rules are founded on the keenest scrutiny of the "standard" writers of our time. Usage is varied as our way of thinking changes. In Chaucer's time two or three negatives were used to strengthen a negation; as, "Ther *nas no* man *nowher* so vertuous" (There never was no man nowhere so virtuous). And Shakespeare used good English when he said *more elder* ("Merchant of Venice") and *most unkindest* ("Julius Cæsar"); but this is bad English now.

If, however, we have tabulated the inflections of the language, and stated what syntax is the most used in certain troublesome places, there is still much for the grammarian to do.

A broader view.

Surely our noble language, with its enormous vocabulary, its peculiar and abundant idioms, its numerous periphrastic forms to express every possible shade of meaning, is worthy of serious study, apart from the mere memorizing of inflections and formulation of rules.

Mental training. An æsthetic benefit.

Grammar is eminently a means of mental training; and while it will train the student in subtle and acute reasoning, it will at the same time, if rightly presented, lay the foundation of a keen observation and a correct literary taste. The continued contact with the highest thoughts of the best minds will create a thirst for the "well of English undefiled."

What grammar is.

Coming back, then, from the question, *What ground should grammar cover?* we come to answer the question, *What should grammar teach?* and we give as an answer the definition,—

English grammar is the science which treats of the nature of words, their forms, and their uses and relations in the sentence.

The work it will cover.

This will take in the usual divisions, "The Parts of Speech" (with their inflections), "Analysis," and "Syntax." It will also require a discussion of any points that will clear up difficulties, assist the classification of kindred expressions, or draw the attention of the student to everyday idioms and phrases, and thus incite his observation.

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Authority as a basis.

A few words here as to the *authority* upon which grammar rests.

Literary English.

The statements given will be substantiated by quotations from the leading or "standard" literature of modern times; that is, from the eighteenth century on. This *literary English* is considered the foundation on which grammar must rest.

Spoken English.

Here and there also will be quoted words and phrases from *spoken* or *colloquial English*, by which is meant the free, unstudied expressions of ordinary conversation and communication among intelligent people.

These quotations will often throw light on obscure constructions, since they preserve turns of expressions that have long since perished from the literary or standard English.

Vulgar English.

Occasionally, too, reference will be made to *vulgar English,*—the speech of the uneducated and ignorant,—which will serve to illustrate points of syntax once correct, or standard, but now undoubtedly bad grammar.

The following pages will cover, then, three divisions:—

Part I. The Parts of Speech, and Inflections.

Part II. Analysis of Sentences.

Part III. The Uses of Words, or Syntax.

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PART I.

THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

NOUNS.

1. In the more simple *state* of the *Arabs*, the *nation* is free, because each of her *sons* disdains a base *submission* to the *will* of a *master*.—Gibbon.

Name words

By examining this sentence we notice several words used as names. The plainest name is *Arabs*, which belongs to a people; but, besides this one, the words *sons* and *master* name objects, and may belong to any of those objects. The words *state, submission,* and *will* are evidently names of a different kind, as they stand for ideas, not objects; and the word *nation* stands for a whole group.

When the meaning of each of these words has once been understood, the word naming it will always call up the thing or idea itself. Such words are called **nouns**.

Definition.

2. A noun is a name word, representing directly to the mind an object, substance, or idea.

Classes of nouns.

3. Nouns are classified as follows:—

(1) **Proper.**

(2) **Common.** (a) CLASS NAMES: i. Individual. ii. Collective.
(b) MATERIAL.

(3) **Abstract.** (a) ATTRIBUTE.
(b) VERBAL

Names for special objects.

4. A **proper noun** is a name applied to a particular object, whether person, place, or thing.

It specializes or limits the thing to which it is applied, reducing it to a narrow application. Thus, *city* is a word applied to any one of its kind; but *Chicago* names one city, and fixes the attention upon that particular city. *King* may be applied to any ruler of a kingdom, but *Alfred the Great* is the name of one king only.

The word *proper* is from a Latin word meaning *limited, belonging to one*. This does not imply, however, that a proper name can be applied to only one object, but that each time such a name is applied it is fixed or proper to that object. Even if there are several Bostons or Manchesters, the name of each is an individual or proper name.

Name for any individual of a class.

5. A **common noun** is a name possessed by *any* one of a class of persons, animals, or things.

Common, as here used, is from a Latin word which means *general, possessed by all.*

For instance, *road* is a word that names *any* highway outside of cities; *wagon* is a term that names *any* vehicle of a certain kind used for hauling: the words are of the widest application. We may say, *the man here*, or *the man in front of you*, but the word *man* is here hedged in by other words or word groups: the name itself is of general application.

Name for a group or collection of objects.

Besides considering persons, animals, and things separately, we may think of them in groups, and appropriate names to the groups.

Thus, men in groups may be called a *crowd*, or a *mob*, a *committee*, or a *council*, or a *congress*, etc.

These are called **COLLECTIVE NOUNS**. They properly belong under common nouns, because each group is considered as a unit, and the name applied to it belongs to any group of its class.

Names for things thought of in mass.

6. The definition given for common nouns applies more strictly to class nouns. It may, however, be correctly used for another group of nouns detailed below; for they are common nouns in the sense that the names apply to *every particle of similar substance*, instead of to each individual or separate object.

They are called **MATERIAL NOUNS**. Such are *glass*, *iron*, *clay*, *frost*, *rain*, *snow*, *wheat*, *wine*, *tea*, *sugar*, etc.

They may be placed in groups as follows:—

(1) The metals: *iron*, *gold*, *platinum*, etc.

(2) Products spoken of in bulk: *tea*, *sugar*, *rice*, *wheat*, etc.

(3) Geological bodies: *mud*, *sand*, *granite*, *rock*, *stone*, etc.

(4) Natural phenomena: *rain*, *dew*, *cloud*, *frost*, *mist*, etc.

(5) Various manufactures: *cloth* (and the different kinds of cloth), *potash*, *soap*, *rubber*, *paint*, *celluloid*, etc.

7. NOTE.—There are some nouns, such as *sun*, *moon*, *earth*, which seem to be the names of particular individual objects, but which are not called proper names.

Words naturally of limited application not proper.

The reason is, that in proper names the intention is *to exclude* all other individuals of the same class, and fasten a special name to the object considered, as in calling a city *Cincinnati*; but in the words *sun*, *earth*, etc., there is no such intention. If several bodies like the center of our solar system are known, they also are called *suns* by a natural extension of the term: so with the words *earth*, *world*, etc. They remain common class names.

Names of ideas, not things.

8. Abstract nouns are names of qualities, conditions, or actions, considered abstractly, or apart from their natural connection.

When we speak of a *wise man*, we recognize in him an attribute or quality. If we wish to think simply of that quality without describing the person, we speak of the *wisdom* of the man. The quality is still there as much as before, but it is taken merely as a name. So *poverty* would express the condition of a poor person; *proof* means the act of proving, or that which shows a thing has been proved; and so on.

Again, we may say, "*Painting* is a fine art," "*Learning* is hard to acquire," "a man of *understanding*."

9. There are two chief divisions of abstract nouns:—

(1) ATTRIBUTE NOUNS, expressing attributes or qualities.

(2) VERBAL NOUNS, expressing state, condition, or action.

Attribute abstract nouns.

10. The ATTRIBUTE ABSTRACT NOUNS are derived from adjectives and from common nouns. Thus, (1) *prudence* from *prudent*, *height* from *high*, *redness* from *red*, *stupidity* from *stupid*, etc.; (2) *peerage* from *peer*, *childhood* from *child*, *mastery* from *master*, *kingship* from *king*, etc.

Verbal abstract nouns.

11. The VERBAL ABSTRACT NOUNS Originate in verbs, as their name implies. They may be—

(1) Of the same form as the simple verb. The verb, by altering its function, is used as a noun; as in the expressions, "a long *run*" "a bold *move*," "a brisk *walk*."

(2) Derived from verbs by changing the ending or adding a suffix: *motion* from *move*, *speech* from *speak*, *theft* from *thieve*, *action* from *act*, *service* from *serve*.

Caution.

(3) Derived from verbs by adding *-ing* to the simple verb. It must be remembered that these words are *free from any verbal function*. They cannot govern a word, and they cannot *express* action, but are merely *names* of actions. They are only the husks

of verbs, and are to be rigidly distinguished from *gerunds* (Secs. 272, 273).

To avoid difficulty, study carefully these examples:

The best thoughts and *sayings* of the Greeks; the moon caused fearful *forebodings*; in the *beginning* of his life; he spread his *blessings* over the land; the great Puritan *awakening*; our birth is but a sleep and a *forgetting*; a *wedding* or a festival; the rude *drawings* of the book; masterpieces of the Socratic *reasoning*; the *teachings* of the High Spirit; those opinions and *feelings*; there is time for such *reasonings*; the *well-being* of her subjects; her *longing* for their favor; *feelings* which their original *meaning* will by no means justify; the main *bearings* of this matter.

Underived abstract nouns.

12. Some abstract nouns were not derived from any other part of speech, but were framed directly for the expression of certain ideas or phenomena. Such are *beauty*, *joy*, *hope*, *ease*, *energy*; *day*, *night*, *summer*, *winter*; *shadow*, *lightning*, *thunder*, etc.

The adjectives or verbs corresponding to these are either themselves derived from the nouns or are totally different words; as *glad—joy*, *hopeful—hope*, etc.

Exercises.

1. From your reading bring up sentences containing ten common nouns, five proper, five abstract.

NOTE.—Remember that all sentences are to be *selected* from standard literature.

2. Under what class of nouns would you place (*a*) the names of diseases, as *pneumonia*, *pleurisy*, *catarrh*, *typhus*, *diphtheria*; (*b*) branches of knowledge, as *physics*, *algebra*, *geology*, *mathematics*?

3. Mention collective nouns that will embrace groups of each of the following individual nouns:—

- man
- horse
- bird
- fish
- partridge
- pupil
- bee
- soldier
- book
- sailor
- child
- sheep
- ship
- ruffian

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4. Using a dictionary, tell from what word each of these abstract nouns is derived:—

- sight
- speech
- motion
- pleasure
- patience
- friendship
- deceit
- bravery
- height

- width
- wisdom
- regularity
- advice
- seizure
- nobility
- relief
- death
- raid
- honesty
- judgment
- belief
- occupation
- justice
- service
- trail
- feeling
- choice
- simplicity

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SPECIAL USES OF NOUNS.

Nouns change by use.

13. By being used so as to vary their usual meaning, nouns of one class may be made to approach another class, or to go over to it entirely. Since words alter their meaning so rapidly by a widening or narrowing of their application, we shall find numerous examples of this shifting from class to class; but most of them are in the following groups. For further discussion see the remarks on articles (p. 119).

Proper names transferred to common use.

14. Proper nouns are used as common in either of two ways:—

(1) *The origin of a thing is used for the thing itself*: that is, the name of the inventor may be applied to the thing invented, as a *davy*, meaning the miner's lamp invented by Sir Humphry Davy; the *guillotine*, from the name of Dr. Guillotin, who was its inventor. Or the name of the country or city from which an article is derived is used for the article: as *china*, from China; *arras*, from a town in France; *port* (wine), from Oporto, in Portugal; *levant* and *morocco* (leather).

Some of this class have become worn by use so that at present we can scarcely discover the derivation from the form of the word; for example, the word *port*, above. Others of similar character are *calico*, from Calicut; *damask*, from Damascus; *currants*, from Corinth; etc.

(2) *The name of a person or place noted for certain qualities is transferred to any person or place possessing those qualities*; thus,—

Hercules and Samson were noted for their strength, and we call a very strong man *a Hercules* or *a Samson*. Sodom was famous for wickedness, and a similar place is called *a Sodom* of sin.

A Daniel come to judgment!—Shakespeare.

If it prove a mind of uncommon activity and power, *a Locke*, *a Lavoisier*, *a Hutton*, *a Bentham*, *a Fourier*, it imposes its classification on other men, and lo! a new system.—Emerson.

Names for things in bulk altered for separate portions.

15. Material nouns may be used as class names. Instead of considering the whole body of material of which certain uses

are made, one can speak of particular uses or phases of the substance; as—

(1) *Of individual objects* made from metals or other substances capable of being wrought into various shapes. We know a number of objects made of iron. The material *iron* embraces the metal contained in them all; but we may say, "The cook made the *irons* hot," referring to flat-irons; or, "The sailor was put in *irons*" meaning chains of iron. So also we may speak of *a glass* to drink from or to look into; *a steel* to whet a knife on; *a rubber* for erasing marks; and so on.

(2) *Of classes* or *kinds* of the same substance. These are the same in material, but differ in strength, purity, etc. Hence it shortens speech to make the nouns plural, and say *teas*, *tobaccos*, *paints*, *oils*, *candies*, *clays*, *coals*.

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(3) *By poetical use*, of certain words necessarily singular in idea, which are made plural, or used as class nouns, as in the following:—

The lone and level *sands* stretch far away.

From all around— Earth and her *waters*, and the depths of air— Comes a still voice. —Bryant.

Their airy ears *The winds* have stationed on the mountain peaks. —Percival.

(4) *Of detached portions* of matter used as class names; as *stones*, *slates*, *papers*, *tins*, *clouds*, *mists*, etc.

Personification of abstract ideas.

16. Abstract nouns are frequently used as proper names by being personified; that is, the ideas are spoken of as residing in living beings. This is a poetic usage, though not confined to verse.

Next *Anger* rushed; his eyes, on fire, In lightnings owned his secret stings. —Collins.

Freedom's fame finds wings on every wind.—Byron.

Death, his mask melting like a nightmare dream, smiled.—Hayne.

Traffic has lain down to rest; and only *Vice* and *Misery*, to prowl or to moan like night birds, are abroad.—Carlyle.

A halfway class of words. Class nouns in use, abstract in meaning.

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17. Abstract nouns are made half abstract by being spoken of in the plural.

They are not then pure abstract nouns, nor are they common class nouns. For example, examine this:—

The *arts* differ from the *sciences* in this, that their power is founded not merely on *facts* which can be communicated, but on *dispositions* which require to be created.—Ruskin.

When it is said that *art* differs from *science*, that the power of art is founded on *fact*, that *disposition* is the thing to be created, the words italicized are pure abstract nouns; but in case *an art* or *a science*, or *the arts* and *sciences*, be spoken of, the abstract idea is partly lost. The words preceded by the article *a*, or made plural, are still names of abstract ideas, not material things; but they

widen the application to separate kinds of *art* or different branches of *science*. They are neither class nouns nor pure abstract nouns: they are more properly called *half abstract*.

Test this in the following sentences:—

Let us, if we must have great *actions*, make our own so.—Emerson.

And still, as each repeated *pleasure* tired, Succeeding *sports* the mirthful band inspired.—Goldsmith.

But ah! those *pleasures*, *loves*, and *joys* Which I too keenly taste, The Solitary can despise. —Burns.

All these, however, were mere *terrors* of the night.—Irving.

By ellipses, nouns used to modify.

18. Nouns used as descriptive terms. Sometimes a noun is attached to another noun to add to its meaning, or describe it; for example, "a *family* quarrel," "a *New York* bank," "the *State Bank Tax* bill," "a *morning* walk."

It is evident that these approach very near to the function of adjectives. But it is better to consider them as nouns, for these reasons: they do not give up their identity as nouns; they do not express quality; they cannot be compared, as descriptive adjectives are.

They are more like the possessive noun, which belongs to another word, but is still a noun. They may be regarded as elliptical expressions, meaning a walk *in the morning*, a bank *in New York*, a bill *as to tax on the banks*, etc.

NOTE.—If the descriptive word be a *material* noun, it may be regarded as changed to an adjective. The term "*gold* pen" conveys the same idea as "*golden* pen," which contains a pure adjective.

WORDS AND WORD GROUPS USED AS NOUNS.

The noun may borrow from any part of speech, or from any expression.

19. Owing to the scarcity of distinctive forms, and to the consequent flexibility of English speech, words which are usually other parts of speech are often used as nouns; and various word groups may take the place of nouns by being used as nouns.

Adjectives, Conjunctions, Adverbs.

(1) *Other parts of speech* used as nouns:—

The great, *the wealthy*, fear thy blow.—Burns.

Every *why* hath a *wherefore*.—Shakespeare.

When I was young? Ah, woeful *When*! Ah! for the change 'twixt *Now* and *Then*! —Coleridge.

(2) *Certain word groups* used like single nouns:—

Too swift arrives as tardy as *too slow*.—Shakespeare.

Then comes the "*Why, sir*!" and the "*What then, sir*?" and the "*No, sir*!" and the "*You don't see your way through the question, sir*!"—Macaulay

(3) Any part of speech may be considered merely as a word, without reference to its function in the sentence; also titles of books are treated as simple nouns.

The *it*, at the beginning, is ambiguous, whether it mean the sun or the cold.—Dr BLAIR

In this definition, is the word "*just*," or "*legal*," finally to stand?—Ruskin.

There was also a book of Defoe's called an "*Essay on Projects*," and another of Dr. Mather's called "*Essays to do Good*."—B. FRANKLIN.

Caution.

20. It is to be remembered, however, that the above cases are shiftings of the *use*, of words rather than of their *meaning*. We seldom find instances of complete conversion of one part of speech into another.

When, in a sentence above, the terms *the great*, *the wealthy*, are used, they are not names only: we have in mind the idea of persons and the quality of being *great* or *wealthy*. The words are used in the sentence where nouns are used, but have an adjectival meaning.

In the other sentences, *why* and *wherefore*, *When*, *Now*, and *Then*, are spoken of as if pure nouns; but still the reader considers this not a natural application of them as name words, but as a figure of speech.

NOTE.—These remarks do not apply, of course, to such words as become pure nouns by use. There are many of these. The adjective *good* has no claim on the noun *goods*; so, too, in speaking of the *principal* of a school, or a state *secret*, or a faithful *domestic*, or a *criminal*, etc., the words are entirely independent of any adjective force.

Exercise.

Pick out the nouns in the following sentences, and tell to which class each belongs. Notice if any have shifted from one class to another.

1. Hope springs eternal in the human breast.

2. Heaven from all creatures hides the book of Fate.

3.

Stone walls do not a prison make. Nor iron bars a cage.

4. Truth-teller was our England's Alfred named.

5. A great deal of talent is lost to the world for want of a little courage.

6.

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Power laid his rod aside, And Ceremony doff'd her pride.

7. She sweeps it through the court with troops of ladies.

8. Learning, that cobweb of the brain.

9.

A little weeping would ease my heart; But in their briny bed My tears must stop, for every drop Hinders needle and thread.

10. A fool speaks all his mind, but a wise man reserves something for hereafter.

11. Knowledge is proud that he has learned so much; Wisdom is humble that he knows no more.

12. Music hath charms to soothe the savage breast.

13.

And see, he cried, the welcome, Fair guests, that waits you here.

14. The fleet, shattered and disabled, returned to Spain.

15. One To-day is worth two To-morrows.

16. Vessels carrying coal are constantly moving.

17.

Some mute inglorious Milton here may rest, Some Cromwell guiltless of his country's blood.

18. And oft we trod a waste of pearly sands.

19.

A man he seems of cheerful yesterdays And confident to-morrows.

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20. The hours glide by; the silver moon is gone.

21. Her robes of silk and velvet came from over the sea.

22. My soldier cousin was once only a drummer boy.

23.

But pleasures are like poppies spread, You seize the flower, its bloom is shed.

24. All that thou canst call thine own Lies in thy To-day.

INFLECTIONS OF NOUNS.

GENDER.

What gender means in English. It is founded on sex.

21. In Latin, Greek, German, and many other languages, some general rules are given that names of male beings are usually masculine, and names of females are usually feminine. There are exceptions even to this general statement, but not so in English. Male beings are, in English grammar, always masculine; female, always feminine.

When, however, *inanimate* things are spoken of, these languages are totally unlike our own in determining the gender of words. For instance: in Latin, *hortus* (garden) is masculine, *mensa* (table) is feminine, *corpus* (body) is neuter; in German, *das Messer* (knife) is neuter, *der Tisch* (table) is masculine, *die Gabel* (fork) is feminine.

The great difference is, that in English the gender follows the *meaning* of the word, in other languages gender follows the *form*; that is, in English, gender depends on *sex*: if a thing spoken of is of the male sex, the *name* of it is masculine; if of the female sex, the *name* of it is feminine. Hence:

Definition.

22. Gender is the mode of distinguishing sex by words, or additions to words.

23. It is evident from this that English can have but two genders,—**masculine** and **feminine**.

Gender nouns. Neuter nouns.

All nouns, then, must be divided into two principal classes,—**gender nouns**, those distinguishing the sex of the object; and

neuter nouns, those which do not distinguish sex, or names of things without life, and consequently without sex.

Gender nouns include names of persons and some names of animals; neuter nouns include some animals and all inanimate objects.

Some words either gender or neuter nouns, according to use.

24. Some words may be either gender nouns or neuter nouns, according to their use. Thus, the word *child* is neuter in the sentence, "A little *child* shall lead them," but is masculine in the sentence from Wordsworth,—

I have seen A curious *child* ... applying to *his* ear The convolutions of a smooth-lipped shell.

Of animals, those with which man comes in contact often, or which arouse his interest most, are named by gender nouns, as in these sentences:—

Before the barn door strutted the gallant *cock*, that pattern of a husband, ... clapping *his* burnished wings.—Irving.

Gunpowder ... came to a stand just by the bridge, with a suddenness that had nearly sent *his* rider sprawling over *his* head—*Id.*

Other animals are not distinguished as to sex, but are spoken of as neuter, the sex being of no consequence.

Not a *turkey* but he [Ichabod] beheld daintily trussed up, with *its* gizzard under *its* wing.—Irving.

He next stooped down to feel the *pig*, if there were any signs of life in *it*.—Lamb.

No "common gender."

25. According to the definition, there can be no such thing as "common gender:" words either distinguish sex (or the sex is distinguished by the context) or else they do not distinguish sex.

If such words as *parent*, *servant*, *teacher*, *ruler*, *relative*, *cousin*, *domestic*, etc., do not show the sex to which the persons belong, they are neuter words.

26. Put in convenient form, the division of words according to sex, or the lack of it, is,—

Gender **nouns** { (MASCULINE: Male beings. (FEMININE: Female beings.

Neuter nouns: Names of inanimate things, or of living beings whose sex cannot be determined.

27. The inflections for gender belong, of course, only to masculine and feminine nouns. *Forms* would be a more accurate word than *inflections*, since inflection applies only to the *case* of nouns.

There are three ways to distinguish the genders:—

(1) By prefixing a gender word to another word.

(2) By adding a suffix, generally to a masculine word.

(3) By using a different word for each gender.

I. Gender shown by Prefixes.

Very few of class I.

28. Usually the gender words *he* and *she* are prefixed to neuter words; as *he-goat—she-goat*, *cock sparrow—hen sparrow*, *he-bear—she-bear*.

One feminine, *woman*, puts a prefix before the masculine *man*. *Woman* is a short way of writing *wifeman*.

II. Gender shown by Suffixes.

29. By far the largest number of gender words are those marked by suffixes. In this particular the native endings have been largely supplanted by foreign suffixes.

Native suffixes.

The **native suffixes** to indicate the feminine were *-en* and *-ster*. These remain in *vixen* and *spinster*, though both words have lost their original meanings.

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The word *vixen* was once used as the feminine of *fox* by the Southern-English. For *fox* they said *vox*; for *from* they said *vram*; and for the older word *fat* they said *vat*, as in *wine vat*. Hence *vixen* is for *fyxen*, from the masculine *fox*.

Spinster is a relic of a large class of words that existed in Old and Middle English,[1] but have now lost their original force as feminines. The old masculine answering to *spinster* was *spinner*; but *spinster* has now no connection with it.

The **foreign suffixes** are of two kinds:—

Foreign suffixes. Unaltered and little used.

(1) Those belonging to borrowed words, as *czarina*, *señorita*, *executrix*, *donna*. These are attached to foreign words, and are never used for words recognized as English.

Slightly changed and widely used.

(2) That regarded as the standard or regular termination of the feminine, *-ess* (French *esse*, Low Latin *issa*), the one most used. The corresponding masculine may have the ending *-er* (*-or*), but in most cases it has not. Whenever we adopt a new masculine word, the feminine is formed by adding this termination *-ess*.

Sometimes the *-ess* has been added to a word already feminine by the ending *-ster*; as *seam-str-ess*, *song-str-ess*. The ending *-ster* had then lost its force as a feminine suffix; it has none now in the words *huckster*, *gamester*, *trickster*, *punster*.

Ending of masculine not changed.

30. The ending *-ess* is added to many words without changing the ending of the masculine; as,—

- baron—baroness
- count—countess
- lion—lioness
- Jew—Jewess
- heir—heiress
- host—hostess
- priest—priestess
- giant—giantess

Masculine ending dropped.

The masculine ending may be dropped before the feminine *-ess* is added; as,—

- abbot—abbess
- negro—negress
- murderer—murderess
- sorcerer—sorceress

Vowel dropped before adding -ess.

The feminine may discard a vowel which appears in the masculine; as in—

- actor—actress
- master—mistress
- benefactor—benefactress
- emperor—empress
- tiger—tigress
- enchanter—enchantress

Empress has been cut down from *emperice* (twelfth century) and *emperesse* (thirteenth century), from Latin *imperatricem*.

Master and *mistress* were in Middle English *maister—maistresse*, from the Old French *maistre—maistresse*.

31. When the older *-en* and *-ster* went out of use as the distinctive mark of the feminine, the ending *-ess*, from the French *-esse*, sprang into a popularity much greater than at present.

Ending -ess *less used now than formerly*.

Instead of saying *doctress*, *fosteress*, *wagoness*, as was said in the sixteenth century, or *servauntesse*, *teacheresse*, *neighboresse*, *frendesse*, as in the fourteenth century, we have dispensed with the ending in many cases, and either use a prefix word or leave the masculine to do work for the feminine also.

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Thus, we say *doctor* (masculine and feminine) or *woman doctor*, *teacher* or *lady teacher*, *neighbor* (masculine and feminine), etc. We frequently use such words as *author*, *editor*, *chairman*, to represent persons of either sex.

NOTE.—There is perhaps this distinction observed: when we speak of a female *as an active agent* merely, we use the masculine termination, as, "George Eliot is the *author* of 'Adam Bede;'" but when we speak purposely *to denote a distinction from a male*, we use the feminine, as, "George Eliot is an eminent *authoress*."

III. Gender shown by Different Words.

32. In some of these pairs, the feminine and the masculine are entirely different words; others have in their origin the same root. Some of them have an interesting history, and will be noted below:—

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- bachelor—maid
- boy—girl
- brother—sister
- drake—duck
- earl—countess
- father—mother
- gander—goose
- hart—roe
- horse—mare
- husband—wife
- king—queen
- lord—lady
- wizard—witch
- nephew—niece
- ram—ewe
- sir—madam

- son—daughter
- uncle—aunt
- bull—cow
- boar—sow

Girl originally meant a child of either sex, and was used for male or female until about the fifteenth century.

Drake is peculiar in that it is formed from a corresponding feminine which is no longer used. It is not connected historically with our word *duck*, but is derived from *ened* (duck) and an obsolete suffix *rake* (king). Three letters of *ened* have fallen away, leaving our word *drake*.

Gander and **goose** were originally from the same root word. *Goose* has various cognate forms in the languages akin to English (German *Gans*, Icelandic *gás*, Danish *gaas*, etc.). The masculine was formed by adding *-a*, the old sign of the masculine. This *gansa* was modified into *gan-ra*, *gand-ra*, finally *gander*; the *d* being inserted to make pronunciation easy, as in many other words.

Mare, in Old English *mere*, had the masculine *mearh* (horse), but this has long been obsolete.

Husband and **wife** are not connected in origin. *Husband* is a Scandinavian word (Anglo-Saxon *hūsbonda* from Icelandic *hús-bóndi*, probably meaning house dweller); *wife* was used in Old and Middle English to mean woman in general.

King and **queen** are said by some (Skeat, among others) to be from the same root word, but the German etymologist Kluge says they are not.

Lord is said to be a worn-down form of the Old English *hlāf-weard* (loaf keeper), written *loverd*, *lhauerd*, or *lauerd* in Middle English. **Lady** is from *hlœfdige* (*hlœf* meaning loaf, and *dige* being of uncertain origin and meaning).

Witch is the Old English *wicce*, but **wizard** is from the Old French *guiscart* (prudent), not immediately connected with *witch*, though both are ultimately from the same root.

Sir is worn down from the Old French *sire* (Latin *senior*). **Madam** is the French *ma dame*, from Latin *mea domina*.

Two masculines from feminines.

33. Besides *gander* and *drake*, there are two other masculine words that were formed from the feminine:—

Bridegroom, from Old English *brȳd-guma* (bride's man). The *r* in *groom* has crept in from confusion with the word *groom*.

Widower, from the weakening of the ending *-a* in Old English to *-e* in Middle English. The older forms, *widuwa—widuwe*, became identical, and a new masculine ending was therefore added to distinguish the masculine from the feminine (compare Middle English *widuer—widewe*).

Personification.

34. Just as abstract ideas are personified (Sec. 16), material objects may be spoken of like gender nouns; for example,—

"Now, where the swift *Rhone* cleaves *his* way." —Byron.

The *Sun* now rose upon the right: Out of the sea came *he*. —Coleridge.

And haply the *Queen Moon* is on *her* throne, Clustered around by all her starry Fays. —Keats.

Britannia needs no bulwarks, No towers along the steep; *Her* march is o'er the mountain waves, *Her* home is on the deep. —Campbell.

This is not exclusively a poetic use. In ordinary speech personification is very frequent: the pilot speaks of his boat as feminine; the engineer speaks so of his engine; etc.

Effect of personification.

In such cases the gender is marked by the pronoun, and not by the form of the noun. But the fact that in English the distinction of gender is confined to difference of sex makes these departures more effective.

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NUMBER.

Definition.

35. In nouns, number means the mode of indicating whether we are speaking of one thing or of more than one.

36. Our language has two numbers,—*singular* and *plural*. The singular number denotes that one thing is spoken of; the plural, more than one.

37. There are three ways of changing the singular form to the plural:—

(1) By adding *-en*.

(2) By changing the root vowel.

(3) By adding *-s* (or *-es*).

The first two methods prevailed, together with the third, in Old English, but in modern English *-s* or *-es* has come to be the "standard" ending; that is, whenever we adopt a new word, we make its plural by adding *-s* or *-es*.

I. Plurals formed by the Suffix -en.

The -en *inflection*.

38. This inflection remains only in the word **oxen**, though it was quite common in Old and Middle English; for instance, *eyen* (eyes), *treen* (trees), *shoon* (shoes), which last is still used in Lowland Scotch. *Hosen* is found in the King James version of the Bible, and *housen* is still common in the provincial speech in England.

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39. But other words were inflected afterwards, in imitation of the old words in *-en* by making a double plural.

-En *inflection imitated by other words.*

Brethren has passed through three stages. The old plural was *brothru*, then *brothre* or *brethre*, finally *brethren*. The weakening of inflections led to this addition.

Children has passed through the same history, though the intermediate form *childer* lasted till the seventeenth century in literary English, and is still found in dialects; as,—

"God bless me! so then, after all, you'll have a chance to see your *childer* get up like, and get settled."—Quoted By De Quincey.

Kine is another double plural, but has now no singular.

In spite of wandering *kine* and other adverse circumstance.—Thoreau.

II. Plurals formed by Vowel Change.

40. Examples of this inflection are,—

- man—men
- foot—feet
- goose—geese
- louse—lice
- mouse—mice
- tooth—teeth

Some other words—as *book*, *turf*, *wight*, *borough*—formerly had the same inflection, but they now add the ending *-s*.

41. Akin to this class are some words, originally neuter, that have the singular and plural alike; such as *deer*, *sheep*, *swine*, etc.

Other words following the same usage are, *pair*, *brace*, *dozen*, after numerals (if not after numerals, or if preceded by the prepositions *in*, *by*, etc, they add *-s*): also *trout*, *salmon*; *head*, *sail*; *cannon*; *heathen*, *folk*, *people*.

The words *horse* and *foot*, when they mean soldiery, retain the same form for plural meaning; as,—

The *foot* are fourscore thousand, The *horse* are thousands ten. —Macaulay.

Lee marched over the mountain wall,— Over the mountains winding down, *Horse* and *foot*, into Frederick town. —Whittier.

III. Plurals formed by Adding -s or -es.

42. Instead of *-s,* the ending *-es* is added—

(1) If a word ends in a letter which cannot add *-s* and be pronounced. Such are *box, cross, ditch, glass, lens, quartz*, etc.

-Es added in certain cases.

If the word ends in a *sound* which cannot add *-s*, a new syllable is made; as, *niche—niches, race—races, house—houses, prize—prizes, chaise—chaises*, etc.

-Es is also added to a few words ending in -o, though this sound combines readily with *-s*, and does not make an extra syllable: *cargo—cargoes, negro—negroes, hero—heroes, volcano—volcanoes*, etc.

Usage differs somewhat in other words of this class, some adding *-s*, and some *-es*.

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(2) If a word ends in *-y* preceded by a consonant (the *y* being then changed to *i*); e.g., *fancies, allies, daisies, fairies*.

Words in -ies.

Formerly, however, these words ended in *-ie*, and the real ending is therefore *-s*. Notice these from Chaucer (fourteenth century):—

Their old form.

The *lilie* on hir stalke grene. Of *maladie* the which he hadde endured.

And these from Spenser (sixteenth century):—

Be well aware, quoth then that *ladie* milde. At last fair Hesperus in highest *skie* Had spent his lampe.

(3) In the case of some **words ending in *-f* or *-fe***, which have the plural in *-ves*: *calf—calves*, *half—halves*, *knife—knives*, *shelf—shelves*, etc.

Special Lists.

43. Material nouns and **abstract nouns** are always singular. When such words take a plural ending, they lose their identity, and go over to other classes (Secs. 15 and 17).

44. Proper nouns are regularly singular, but may be made plural when we wish to speak of several persons or things bearing the same name; e.g., *the Washingtons*, *the Americas*.

45. Some words are **usually singular**, though they are plural in form. Examples of these are, *optics*, *economics*, *physics*, *mathematics*, *politics*, and many branches of learning; also *news*, *pains* (care), *molasses*, *summons*, *means*: as,—

Politics, in its widest extent, is both the science and the art of government.—*Century Dictionary*.

So live, that when thy *summons comes*, etc.—Bryant.

It served simply as *a means* of sight.—Prof. Dana.

Means *plural*.

Two words, **means** and **politics**, *may be plural* in their construction with verbs and adjectives:—

Words, by strongly conveying the passions, by *those means* which we have already mentioned, fully compensate for their weakness in other respects.—Burke.

With great dexterity *these means* were now applied.—Motley.

By *these means*, I say, riches will accumulate.—Goldsmith.

Politics *plural*.

Cultivating a feeling that *politics* are tiresome.—G. W. Curtis.

The *politics* in which he took the keenest interest *were politics* scarcely deserving of the name.—Macaulay.

Now I read all the *politics* that *come* out.—Goldsmith.

46. Some words have **no corresponding singular**.

- aborigines
- amends
- annals
- assets
- antipodes
- scissors
- thanks
- spectacles
- vespers
- victuals
- matins
- nuptials
- oats
- obsequies
- premises
- bellows
- billiards
- dregs
- gallows
- tongs

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Occasionally singular words.

Sometimes, however, a few of these words have the construction of singular nouns. Notice the following:—

They cannot get on without each other any more than one blade of *a scissors* can cut without the other.—J. L. Laughlin.

A relic which, if I recollect right, he pronounced to have been *a tongs*.—Irving.

Besides this, it is furnished with *a forceps*.—Goldsmith.

The air,—was it subdued when...the wind was trained only to turn a windmill, carry off chaff, or work in *a bellows*?—Prof. Dana.

In Early Modern English *thank* is found.

What *thank* have ye?—*Bible*

47. Three words were *originally singular*, the present ending *-s* not being really a plural inflection, but they are regularly construed as plural: *alms, eaves, riches*.

two plurals.

48. A few nouns have **two plurals** differing in meaning.

- brother—brothers (by blood), brethren (of a society or church).
- cloth—cloths (kinds of cloth), clothes (garments).
- die—dies (stamps for coins, etc.), dice (for gaming).
- fish—fish (collectively), fishes (individuals or kinds).
- genius—geniuses (men of genius), genii (spirits).
- index—indexes (to books), indices (signs in algebra).
- pea—peas (separately), pease (collectively).
- penny—pennies (separately), pence (collectively).

- shot—shot (collective balls), shots (number of times fired).

In speaking of coins, *twopence*, *sixpence*, etc., may add *-s*, making a double plural, as two *sixpences*.

One plural, two meanings.

49. Other words have **one plural form with two meanings**,—one corresponding to the singular, the other unlike it.

- custom—customs: (1) habits, ways; (2) revenue duties.
- letter—letters: (1) the alphabet, or epistles; (2) literature.
- number—numbers: (1) figures; (2) poetry, as in the lines,—

I lisped in *numbers*, for the numbers came. —Pope.

Tell me not, in mournful *numbers*. —Longfellow.

Numbers also means issues, or copies, of a periodical.

- pain—pains: (1) suffering; (2) care, trouble,
- part—parts: (1) divisions; (2) abilities, faculties.

Two classes of compound words.

50. Compound words may be divided into two classes:—

(1) *Those whose parts are so closely joined as to constitute one word.* These make the last part plural.

- courtyard
- dormouse
- Englishman

- fellow-servant
- fisherman
- Frenchman
- forget-me-not
- goosequill
- handful
- mouthful
- cupful
- maidservant
- pianoforte
- stepson
- spoonful
- titmouse

(2) *Those groups in which the first part is the principal one, followed by a word or phrase making a modifier.* The chief member adds *-s* in the plural.

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- aid-de-camp
- attorney at law
- billet-doux
- commander in chief
- court-martial
- cousin-german
- father-in-law
- knight-errant
- hanger-on

NOTE.—Some words ending in *-man* are not compounds of the English word *man*, but add *-s*; such as *talisman*, *firman*, *Brahman*, *German*, *Norman*, *Mussulman*, *Ottoman*.

51. Some groups pluralize both parts of the group; as *man singer*, *manservant*, *woman servant*, *woman singer*.

Two methods in use for names with titles.

52. As to plurals of **names with titles**, there is some disagreement among English writers. The title may be plural, as *the Messrs. Allen*, *the Drs. Brown*, *the Misses Rich*; or the name may be pluralized.

The former is perhaps more common in present-day use, though the latter is often found; for example,—

Then came Mr. and Mrs. Briggs, and then *the three Miss Spinneys*, then Silas Peckham.—Dr. Holmes.

Our immortal Fielding was of the younger branch of the *Earls of Denbigh*, who drew their origin from the *Counts of Hapsburgh*.—Gibbon.

The *Miss Flamboroughs* were reckoned the best dancers in the parish.—Goldsmith.

The *Misses Nettengall's* young ladies come to the Cathedral too.—Dickens.

The *Messrs. Harper* have done the more than generous thing by Mr. Du Maurier.—*The Critic.*

53. A number of **foreign words** have been adopted into English without change of form. These are said to be *domesticated*, and retain their foreign plurals.

Others have been adopted, and by long use have altered their power so as to conform to English words. They are then said to be *naturalized*, or *Anglicized*, or *Englished*.

Domesticated words.

The domesticated words may retain the original plural. Some of them have a secondary English plural in *-s* or *-es*.

Exercise.

Find in the dictionary the plurals of these words:—

I. FROM THE LATIN.

- apparatus
- appendix
- axis
- datum
- erratum
- focus
- formula
- genus
- larva
- medium
- memorandum
- nebula
- radius
- series
- species
- stratum
- terminus
- vertex

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II. FROM THE GREEK.

- analysis
- antithesis
- automaton
- basis
- crisis
- ellipsis
- hypothesis
- parenthesis
- phenomenon

- thesis

Anglicized words.

When the foreign words are fully naturalized, they form their plurals in the regular way; as,—

- bandits
- cherubs
- dogmas
- encomiums
- enigmas
- focuses
- formulas
- geniuses
- herbariums
- indexes
- seraphs
- apexes

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Usage varies in plurals of letters, figures, etc.

54. Letters, figures, etc., form their plurals by adding *-s* or *'s*. Words quoted merely as words, without reference to their meaning, also add *-s* or *'s*; as, "His *9's* (or *9s*) look like *7's* (or *7s*)," "Avoid using too many *and's* (or *ands*)," "Change the *+'s* (or *+s*) to *-'s* (or *-s*)."

CASE.

Definition.

55. Case is an inflection or use of a noun (or pronoun) to show its relation to other words in the sentence.

In the sentence, "He sleeps in a felon's cell," the word *felon's* modifies *cell*, and expresses a relation akin to possession; *cell* has another relation, helping to express the idea of place with the word *in*.

56. In the general wearing-away of inflections, the number of case forms has been greatly reduced.

Only two case forms.

There are now only two case forms of English nouns,—one for the *nominative* and *objective*, one for the *possessive*: consequently the matter of inflection is a very easy thing to handle in learning about cases.

Reasons for speaking of three cases *of nouns*.

But there are reasons why grammars treat of *three* cases of nouns when there are only two forms:—

(1) Because the relations of all words, whether inflected or not, must be understood for purposes of analysis.

(2) Because pronouns still have three case forms as well as three case relations.

57. Nouns, then, may be said to have three cases,—the **nominative**, the **objective**, and the **possessive**.

I. Uses of the Nominative.

58. The nominative case is used as follows:—

(1) *As the subject of a verb*: "*Water* seeks its level."

(2) *As a predicate noun*, completing a verb, and referring to or explaining the subject: "A bent twig makes a crooked *tree*."

(3) *In apposition* with some other nominative word, adding to the meaning of that word: "The reaper *Death* with his sickle keen."

(4) *In direct address*: "*Lord Angus*, thou hast lied!"

(5) *With a participle in an absolute or independent phrase* (there is some discussion whether this is a true nominative): "The *work* done, they returned to their homes."

(6) *With an infinitive in exclamations*: "*David* to die!"

Exercise.

Pick out the nouns in the nominative case, and tell which use of the nominative each one has.

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1. Moderate lamentation is the right of the dead; excessive grief, the enemy of the living.

2.

Excuses are clothes which, when asked unawares, Good Breeding to naked Necessity spares.

3. Human experience is the great test of truth.

4. Cheerfulness and content are great beautifiers.

5. Three properties belong to wisdom,—nature, learning, and experience; three things characterize man,—person, fate, and merit.

6.

But of all plagues, good Heaven, thy wrath can send, Save, save, oh save me from the candid friend!

7. Conscience, her first law broken, wounded lies.

8. They charged, sword in hand and visor down.

9.

O sleep! O gentle sleep! Nature's soft nurse, how have I frighted thee?

II. Uses of the Objective.

59. The objective case is used as follows:—

(1) *As the direct object of a verb*, naming the person or thing directly receiving the action of the verb: "Woodman, spare that *tree*!"

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(2) *As the indirect object of a verb*, naming the person or thing indirectly affected by the action of the verb: "Give the *devil* his due."

(3) *Adverbially*, defining the action of a verb by denoting *time*, *measure*, *distance*, etc. (in the older stages of the language, this took the regular accusative inflection): "Full *fathom* five thy father lies;" "Cowards die many *times* before their deaths."

(4) *As the second object*, completing the verb, and thus becoming part of the predicate in acting upon an object: "Time makes the worst enemies *friends*;" "Thou makest the storm a *calm*." In these sentences the real predicates are *makes friends*, taking the object *enemies*, and being equivalent to one verb, *reconciles*; and *makest a calm*, taking the object *storm*, and

meaning calmest. This is also called the *predicate objective* or the *factitive object*.

(5) *As the object of a preposition*, the word toward which the preposition points, and which it joins to another word: "He must have a long spoon that would eat with the *devil*."

The preposition sometimes takes the *possessive* case of a noun, as will be seen in Sec. 68.

(6) *In apposition with another objective*: "The opinions of this junto were completely controlled by Nicholas Vedder, a *patriarch* of the village, and *landlord* of the inn."

Exercise.

Point out the nouns in the objective case in these sentences, and tell which use each has:—

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1. Tender men sometimes have strong wills.

2. Necessity is the certain connection between cause and effect.

3. Set a high price on your leisure moments; they are sands of precious gold.

4. But the flood came howling one day.

5. I found the urchin Cupid sleeping.

6. Five times every year he was to be exposed in the pillory.

7. The noblest mind the best contentment has.

8. Multitudes came every summer to visit that famous natural curiosity, the Great Stone Face.

9.

And whirling plate, and forfeits paid, His winter task a pastime made.

10.

He broke the ice on the streamlet's brink, And gave the leper to eat and drink.

III. Uses of the Possessive.

60. The possessive case always modifies another word, expressed or understood. There are three forms of possessive showing how a word is related in sense to the modified word:—

(1) *Appositional possessive*, as in these expressions,—

The blind old man of *Scio's* rocky isle.—Byron.

Beside a pumice isle in *Baiæ's* bay.—Shelley.

In these sentences the phrases are equivalent to *of the rocky isle [of] Scio*, and *in the bay [of] Baiæ*, the possessive being really equivalent here to an appositional objective. It is a poetic expression, the equivalent phrase being used in prose.

(2) *Objective possessive*, as shown in the sentences,—

Ann Turner had taught her the secret before this last good lady had been hanged for *Sir Thomas Overbury's* murder.—Hawthorne.

He passes to-day in building an air castle for to-morrow, or in writing *yesterday's* elegy.—Thackeray

In these the possessives are equivalent to an objective after a verbal expression: as, *for murdering Sir Thomas Overbury*; *an*

elegy to commemorate yesterday. For this reason the use of the possessive here is called objective.

(3) *Subjective possessive*, the most common of all; as,—

The unwearied sun, from day to day, Does his Creator's power display. —Addison.

If this were expanded into *the power which his Creator possesses*, the word *Creator* would be the subject of the verb: hence it is called a subjective possessive.

61. This last-named possessive expresses a variety of relations. *Possession* in some sense is the most common. The kind of relation may usually be found by expanding the possessive into an equivalent phrase: for example, "*Winter's* rude tempests are gathering now" (i.e., tempests that winter is likely to have); "His beard was of *several days'* growth" (i.e., growth which several days had developed); "The *forest's* leaping panther shall yield his spotted hide" (i.e., the panther which the forest hides); "Whoso sheddeth *man's* blood" (blood that man possesses).

How the possessive is formed.

62. As said before (Sec. 56), there are only two case forms. One is the simple form of a word, expressing the relations of nominative and objective; the other is formed by adding *'s* to the simple form, making the possessive singular. To form the possessive plural, only the apostrophe is added if the plural nominative ends in *-s*; the *'s* is added if the plural nominative does not end in *-s*.

Case Inflection.

Declension or inflection of nouns.

63. The full declension of nouns is as follows:—

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. *Nom. and Obj.*	lady	ladies
Poss.	lady's	ladies'
2. *Nom. and Obj.*	child	children
Poss.	child's	children's

A suggestion.

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NOTE.—The difficulty that some students have in writing the possessive plural would be lessened if they would remember there are two steps to be taken:—

(1) Form the nominative plural according to Secs 39-53

(2) Follow the rule given in Sec. 62.

Special Remarks on the Possessive Case.

Origin of the possessive with its apostrophe.

64. In Old English a large number of words had in the genitive case singular the ending *-es*; in Middle English still more words took this ending: for example, in Chaucer, "From every *schires*

ende," "Full worthi was he in his *lordes* werre [war]," "at his *beddes* syde," "*mannes* herte [heart]," etc.

A false theory.

By the end of the seventeenth century the present way of indicating the possessive had become general. The use of the apostrophe, however, was not then regarded as standing for the omitted vowel of the genitive (as *lord's* for *lordes*): by a false theory the ending was thought to be a contraction of *his*, as schoolboys sometimes write, "George Jones *his* book."

Use of the apostrophe.

Though this opinion was untrue, the apostrophe has proved a great convenience, since otherwise words with a plural in *-s* would have three forms alike. To the eye all the forms are now distinct, but to the ear all may be alike, and the connection must tell us what form is intended.

The use of the apostrophe in the plural also began in the seventeenth century, from thinking that *s* was not a possessive sign, and from a desire to have distinct forms.

Sometimes s *is left out in the possessive singular.*

65. Occasionally the *s* is dropped in the possessive singular if the word ends in a hissing sound and another hissing sound follows, but the apostrophe remains to mark the possessive; as, *for goodness' sake, Cervantes' satirical work.*

In other cases the *s* is seldom omitted. Notice these three examples from Thackeray's writings: "Harry ran upstairs to his *mistress's* apartment;" "A postscript is added, as by the *countess's* command;" "I saw what the *governess's* views were of the matter."

Possessive with compound expressions.

66. In compound expressions, containing words in apposition, a word with a phrase, etc., the possessive sign is usually last, though instances are found with both appositional words marked.

Compare the following examples of literary usage:—

Do not the Miss Prys, my neighbors, know the amount of my income, the items of my *son's*, *Captain Scrapegrace's*, tailor's bill—Thackeray.

The world's pomp and power sits there on this hand: on that, stands up for God's truth one man, the *poor miner Hans Luther's* son.—Carlyle.

They invited me in the *emperor their master's* name.—Swift.

I had naturally possessed myself of *Richardson the painter's* thick octavo volumes of notes on the "Paradise Lost."—DE QUINCEY.

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They will go to Sunday schools to teach classes of little children the age of Methuselah or the dimensions of *Og the king of Bashan's* bedstead.—Holmes.

More common still is the practice of turning the possessive into an equivalent phrase; as, *in the name of the emperor their master*, instead of *the emperor their master's name*.

Possessive and no noun limited.

67. The possessive is sometimes used without belonging to any noun in the sentence; some such word as *house*, *store*, *church*, *dwelling*, etc., being understood with it: for example,—

Here at the *fruiterer's* the Madonna has a tabernacle of fresh laurel leaves.—Ruskin.

It is very common for people to say that they are disappointed in the first sight of *St. Peter's*.—Lowell.

I remember him in his cradle at *St. James's*.—Thackeray.

Kate saw that; and she walked off from the *don's*.—De Quincey.

The double possessive.

68. A peculiar form, a double possessive, has grown up and become a fixed idiom in modern English.

In most cases, a possessive relation was expressed in Old English by the inflection *-es*, corresponding to *'s*. The same relation was expressed in French by a phrase corresponding to *of* and its object. Both of these are now used side by side; sometimes they are used together, as one modifier, making a double possessive. For this there are several reasons:—

Its advantages: Euphony.

(1) When a word is modified by *a*, *the*, *this*, *that*, *every*, *no*, *any*, *each*, etc., and at the same time by a possessive noun, it is distasteful to place the possessive before the modified noun, and it would also alter the meaning: we place it after the modified noun with *of*.

Emphasis.

(2) It is more emphatic than the simple possessive, especially when used with *this* or *that*, for it brings out the modified word in strong relief.

Clearness.

(3) It prevents ambiguity. For example, in such a sentence as, "This introduction *of Atterbury's* has all these advantages" (Dr. Blair), the statement clearly means only one thing,—the introduction which Atterbury made. If, however, we use the phrase *of Atterbury*, the sentence *might* be understood as just explained, or it might mean this act of introducing Atterbury. (See also Sec. 87.)

The following are some instances of double possessives:—

This Hall *of Tinville's* is dark, ill-lighted except where she stands.—Carlyle.

Those lectures *of Lowell's* had a great influence with me, and I used to like whatever they bade me like.—Howells

Niebuhr remarks that no pointed sentences *of Cæsar's* can have come down to us.—Froude.

Besides these famous books *of Scott's and Johnson's*, there is a copious "Life" by Thomas Sheridan.—Thackeray

Always afterwards on occasions of ceremony, he wore that quaint old French sword *of the Commodore's*.—E. E. Hale.

Exercises.

(*a*) Pick out the possessive nouns, and tell whether each is appositional, objective, or subjective.

(*b*) Rewrite the sentence, turning the possessives into equivalent phrases.

1. I don't choose a hornet's nest about my ears.

2. Shall Rome stand under one man's awe?

3. I must not see thee Osman's bride.

4.

At lovers' perjuries, They say, Jove laughs.

5. The world has all its eyes on Cato's son.

6. My quarrel and the English queen's are one.

7.

Now the bright morning star, day's harbinger, Comes dancing from the East.

8. A man's nature runs either to herbs or weeds; therefore, let him seasonably water the one, and destroy the other.

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9.

'Tis all men's office to speak patience To those that wring under the load of sorrow.

10.

A jest's prosperity lies in the ear Of him that hears it, never in the tongue Of him that makes it.

11. No more the juice of Egypt's grape shall moist his lip.

12.

There Shakespeare's self, with every garland crowned, Flew to those fairy climes his fancy sheen.

13.

What supports me? dost thou ask? The conscience, Friend, to have lost them [his eyes] overplied In liberty's defence.

14.

Or where Campania's plain forsaken lies, A weary waste expanding to the skies.

15.

Nature herself, it seemed, would raise A minster to her Maker's praise!

HOW TO PARSE NOUNS.

69. Parsing a word is putting together all the facts about its form and its relations to other words in the sentence.

In parsing, some idioms—the double possessive, for example—do not come under regular grammatical rules, and are to be spoken of merely as idioms.

70. Hence, in parsing a noun, we state,—

(1) The class to which it belongs,—common, proper, etc.

(2) Whether a neuter or a gender noun; if the latter, which gender.

(3) Whether singular or plural number.

(4) Its office in the sentence, determining its case.

The correct method.

71. In parsing any word, the following method should always be followed: tell the facts about what the word *does*, then make the grammatical statements as to its class, inflections, and relations.

MODEL FOR PARSING.

"What is bolder than a miller's neckcloth, which takes a thief by the throat every morning?"

Miller's is a name applied to every individual of its class, hence it is a common noun; it is the name of a male being, hence it is a gender noun, masculine; it denotes only one person, therefore singular number; it expresses possession or ownership, and limits *neckcloth*, therefore possessive case.

Neckcloth, like *miller's*, is a common class noun; it has no sex, therefore neuter; names one thing, therefore singular number; subject of the verb *is* understood, and therefore nominative case.

Thief is a common class noun; the connection shows a male is meant, therefore masculine gender; singular number; object of the verb *takes*, hence objective case.

Throat is neuter, of the same class and number as the word *neckcloth*; it is the object of the preposition *by*, hence it is objective case.

NOTE.—The preposition sometimes takes the possessive case (see Sec. 68).

Morning is like *throat* and *neckcloth* as to class, gender, and number; as to case, it expresses time, has no governing word, but is the adverbial objective.

Exercise.

Follow the model above in parsing all the nouns in the following sentences:—

1. To raise a monument to departed worth is to perpetuate virtue.

2. The greatest pleasure I know is to do a good action by stealth, and to have it found out by accident.

3. An old cloak makes a new jerkin; a withered serving man, a fresh tapster.

4.

That in the captain's but a choleric word, Which in the soldier is flat blasphemy.

5. Now, blessings light on him that first invented ... sleep!

6. Necker, financial minister to Louis XVI., and his daughter, Madame de Staël, were natives of Geneva.

7. He giveth his beloved sleep.

8. Time makes the worst enemies friends.

9. A few miles from this point, where the Rhone enters the lake, stands the famous Castle of Chillon, connected with the shore by a drawbridge,—palace, castle, and prison, all in one.

10.

Wretches! ye loved her for her wealth, And hated her for her pride.

11. Mrs. Jarley's back being towards him, the military gentleman shook his forefinger.

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PRONOUNS.

The need of pronouns.

72. When we wish to speak of a name several times in succession, it is clumsy and tiresome to repeat the noun. For instance, instead of saying, "*The pupil* will succeed in *the pupil's* efforts if *the pupil* is ambitious," we improve the sentence by shortening it thus, "The pupil will succeed in *his* efforts if *he* is ambitious."

Again, if we wish to know about the ownership of a house, we evidently cannot state the owner's name, but by a question we say, "*Whose* house is that?" thus placing a word instead of the name till we learn the name.

This is not to be understood as implying that pronouns were *invented* because nouns were tiresome, since history shows that pronouns are as old as nouns and verbs. The use of pronouns must have sprung up naturally, from a necessity for short, definite, and representative words.

Definition.

A **pronoun** is a reference word, standing for a name, or for a person or thing, or for a group of persons or things.

Classes of pronouns.

73. Pronouns may be grouped in five classes:—

(1) **Personal pronouns**, which distinguish person by their form (Sec. 76).

(2) **Interrogative pronouns**, which are used to ask questions about persons or things.

(3) **Relative pronouns**, which relate or refer to a noun, pronoun, or other word or expression, and at the same time connect two statements They are also called **conjunctive**.

(4) **Adjective pronouns**, words, primarily adjectives, which are classed as adjectives when they modify nouns, but as pronouns when they stand for nouns.

(5) **Indefinite pronouns**, which cannot be used as adjectives, but stand for an indefinite number of persons or things.

Numerous examples of all these will be given under the separate classes hereafter treated.

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PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

Person in grammar.

74. Since pronouns stand for persons as well as names, they must represent the person talking, the person or thing spoken to, and the person or thing talked about.

This gives rise to a new term, "the distinction of *person*."

Person *of nouns.*

75. This distinction was not needed in discussing nouns, as nouns have the *same form*, whether representing persons and things spoken to or spoken of. It is evident that a noun could not represent the person speaking, even if it had a special form.

From analogy to pronouns, which have *forms* for person, nouns are sometimes spoken of as first or second person by their *use*;

that is, if they are in apposition with a pronoun of the first or second person, they are said to have person by agreement.

But usually nouns represent something spoken of.

Three persons of pronouns.

76. Pronouns naturally are of three persons:—

(1) First person, representing the person speaking.

(2) Second person, representing a person or thing spoken to.

(3) Third person, standing for a person or thing spoken of.

FORMS OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

77. Personal pronouns are inflected thus:—

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FIRST PERSON.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom.	I	we
Poss.	mine, my	our, ours
Obj.	me	us

SECOND PERSON.

Singular.

	Old Form	*Common Form.*
Nom.	thou	you
Poss.	thine, thy	your, yours
Obj.	thee	you

Plural.

Nom.	ye	you
Poss.	your, yours	your, yours
Obj.	you	you

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THIRD PERSON.

Singular.

	Masc.	*Fem.*	*Neut..*
Nom.	he	she	it
Poss.	his	her, hers	its

Obj.	him	her	it

Plur. of all Three.

Nom.	they
Poss.	their, theirs
Obj.	them

Remarks on These Forms.

First and second persons without gender.

78. It will be noticed that the pronouns of the first and second persons have no forms to distinguish gender. The speaker may be either male or female, or, by personification, neuter; so also with the person or thing spoken to.

Third person singular *has gender.*

But the third person has, in the singular, a separate form for each gender, and also for the neuter.

Old forms.

In Old English these three were formed from the same root; namely, masculine *hē*, feminine *hēo*, neuter *hit*.

The form *hit* (for *it*) is still heard in vulgar English, and *hoo* (for *hēo*) in some dialects of England.

The plurals were *hī*, *heora*, *heom*, in Old English; the forms *they*, *their*, *them*, perhaps being from the English demonstrative, though influenced by the cognate Norse forms.

Second person always plural in ordinary English.

79. *Thou*, *thee*, etc., are old forms which are now out of use in ordinary speech. The consequence is, that we have no singular pronoun of the second person in ordinary speech or prose, but make the plural *you* do duty for the singular. We use it with a plural verb always, even when referring to a single object.

Two uses of the old singulars.

80. There are, however, two modern uses of *thou, thy*, etc.:—

(1) *In elevated style*, especially in poetry; as,—

With *thy* clear keen joyance Languor cannot be; Shadow of annoyance Never came near *thee*; *Thou* lovest; but ne'er knew love's sad satiety. —Shelley.

(2) *In addressing the Deity*, as in prayers, etc.; for example,—

Oh, *thou* Shepherd of Israel, that didst comfort *thy* people of old, to *thy* care we commit the helpless.—Beecher.

The form its.

81. It is worth while to consider the possessive *its*. This is of comparatively recent growth. The old form was *his* (from the nominative *hit*), and this continued in use till the sixteenth century. The transition from the old *his* to the modern *its* is shown in these sentences:—

1 He anointed the altar and all *his* vessels.—*Bible*

Here *his* refers to *altar*, which is a neuter noun. The quotation represents the usage of the early sixteenth century.

2 It's had *it* head bit off by *it* young—Shakespeare

Shakespeare uses *his*, *it*, and sometimes *its*, as possessive of *it*.

In Milton's poetry (seventeenth century) *its* occurs only three times.

3 See heaven *its* sparkling portals wide display—Pope

A relic of the olden time.

82. We have an interesting relic in such sentences as this from Thackeray: "One of the ways to know '*em* is to watch the scared looks of the ogres' wives and children."

As shown above, the Old English objective was *hem* (or *heom*), which was often sounded with the *h* silent, just as we now say, "I saw '*im* yesterday" when the word *him* is not emphatic. In spoken English, this form '*em* has survived side by side with the literary *them*.

Use of the pronouns in personification.

83. The pronouns *he* and *she* are often used in poetry, and sometimes in ordinary speech, to personify objects (Sec. 34).

CASES OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

I The Nominative.

Nominative forms.

84. The nominative forms of personal pronouns have the same uses as the nominative of nouns (see Sec. 58). The case of most of these pronouns can be determined more easily than the case of nouns, for, besides a nominative *use*, they have a nominative form. The words *I*, *thou*, *he*, *she*, *we*, *ye*, *they*, are very rarely anything but nominative in literary English, though *ye* is occasionally used as objective.

Additional nominatives in spoken English.

85. In spoken English, however, there are some others that are added to the list of nominatives: they are, *me*, *him*, *her*, *us*, *them*, when they occur in the *predicate position*. That is, in such a sentence as, "I am sure it was *him*," the literary language would require *he* after *was*; but colloquial English regularly uses as predicate nominatives the forms *me*, *him*, *her*, *us*, *them*, though those named in Sec. 84 are always subjects. Yet careful speakers avoid this, and follow the usage of literary English.

II. The Possessive.

Not a separate class.

86. The forms *my*, *thy*, *his*, *her*, *its*, *our*, *your*, *their*, are sometimes grouped separately as POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS, but it is better to speak of them as the possessive case of personal pronouns, just as we speak of the possessive case of nouns, and not make more classes.

Absolute *personal pronouns.*

The forms *mine*, *thine*, *yours*, *hers*, *theirs*, sometimes *his* and *its*, have a peculiar use, standing apart from the words they modify instead of immediately before them. From this use they

are called ABSOLUTE PERSONAL PRONOUNS, or, some say, ABSOLUTE POSSESSIVES.

As instances of the use of absolute pronouns, note the following:—

'Twas *mine*, 'tis *his*, and has been slave to thousands. —Shakespeare.

And since thou own'st that praise, I spare thee *mine*.—Cowper.

My arm better than *theirs* can ward it off.—Landor.

Thine are the city and the people of Granada.—Bulwer.

Old use of mine *and* thine.

Formerly *mine* and *thine* stood before their nouns, if the nouns began with a vowel or *h* silent; thus,—

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Shall I not take *mine* ease in *mine* inn?—Shakespeare.

Give every man *thine* ear, but few thy voice.—*Id.*

If *thine* eye offend thee, pluck it out.—*Bible.*

My greatest apprehension was for *mine* eyes.—Swift.

This usage is still preserved in poetry.

Double and triple possessives.

87. The forms *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*, are really double possessives, since they add the possessive *s* to what is already a regular possessive inflection.

Besides this, we have, as in nouns, a possessive phrase made up of the preposition *of* with these double possessives, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*, and with *mine*, *thine*, *his*, sometimes *its*.

Their uses.

Like the noun possessives, they have several uses:—

(1) *To prevent ambiguity*, as in the following:—

I have often contrasted the habitual qualities of that gloomy friend *of theirs* with the astounding spirits of Thackeray and Dickens.—J. T. Fields.

No words *of ours* can describe the fury of the conflict.—J. F. Cooper.

(2) *To bring emphasis*, as in these sentences:—

This thing *of yours* that you call a Pardon of Sins, it is a bit of rag-paper with ink.—Carlyle.

This ancient silver bowl *of mine*, it tells of good old times. —Holmes.

(3) *To express contempt, anger, or satire*; for example,—

"Do you know the charges that unhappy sister *of mine* and her family have put me to already?" says the Master.—Thackeray.

He [John Knox] had his pipe of Bordeaux too, we find, in that old Edinburgh house *of his*.—Carlyle.

"Hold thy peace, Long Allen," said Henry Woodstall, "I tell thee that tongue *of thine* is not the shortest limb about *thee*."—Scott.

(4) *To make a noun less limited in application*; thus,—

A favorite liar and servant *of mine* was a man I once had to drive a brougham.—Thackeray.

In New York I read a newspaper criticism one day, commenting upon a letter *of mine*.—*Id.*

What would the last two sentences mean if the word *my* were written instead of *of mine*, and preceded the nouns?

About the case of absolute pronouns.

88. In their function, or use in a sentence, the absolute possessive forms of the personal pronouns are very much like adjectives used as nouns.

In such sentences as, "*The good* alone are great," "None but *the brave* deserves *the fair*," the words italicized have an adjective force and also a noun force, as shown in Sec. 20.

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So in the sentences illustrating absolute pronouns in Sec. 86: *mine* stands for *my property*, *his* for *his property*, in the first sentence; *mine* stands for *my praise* in the second. But the first two have a nominative use, and *mine* in the second has an objective use.

They may be spoken of as possessive in form, but nominative or objective in use, according as the modified word is in the nominative or the objective.

III. The Objective.

The old dative *case.*

89. In Old English there was one case which survives in use, but not in form. In such a sentence as this one from Thackeray, "Pick

me out a whip-cord thong with some dainty knots in it," the word *me* is evidently not the direct object of the verb, but expresses *for whom*, *for whose benefit*, the thing is done. In pronouns, this **dative** use, as it is called, was marked by a separate case.

Now the objective.

In Modern English the same *use* is frequently seen, but the *form* is the same as the objective. For this reason a word thus used is called a **dative-objective**.

The following are examples of the dative-objective:—

Give *me* neither poverty nor riches.—*Bible*.

Curse *me* this people.—*Id*.

Both joined in making *him* a present.—Macaulay

Is it not enough that you have *burnt me* down three houses with your dog's tricks, and be hanged to you!—Lamb

I give *thee* this to wear at the collar.—Scott

Other uses of the objective.

90. Besides this use of the objective, there are others:—

(1) *As the direct object of a verb.*

They all handled *it*.—Lamb

(2) *As the object of a preposition.*

Time is behind *them* and before *them*.—Carlyle.

(3) *In apposition.*

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She sate all last summer by the bedside of the blind beggar, *him* that so often and so gladly I talked with.—De Quincey.

SPECIAL USES OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

Indefinite use of you *and* your.

91. The word *you*, and its possessive case *yours* are sometimes used without reference to a particular person spoken to. They approach the indefinite pronoun in use.

Your mere puny stripling, that winced at the least flourish of the rod, was passed by with indulgence.—Irving

To empty here, *you* must condense there.—Emerson.

The peasants take off their hats as *you* pass; *you* sneeze, and they cry, "God bless you!" The thrifty housewife shows *you* into her best chamber. *You* have oaten cakes baked some months before.—Longfellow

Uses of it.

92. The pronoun *it* has a number of uses:—

(1) *To refer to some single word preceding*; as,—

Ferdinand ordered the *army* to recommence *its* march.—Bulwer.

Society, in this century, has not made *its* progress, like Chinese skill, by a greater acuteness of ingenuity in trifles.—D. Webster.

(2) *To refer to a preceding word group*; thus,—

If any man should do wrong merely out of ill nature, why, yet *it* is but like the thorn or brier, which prick and scratch because they can do no other.—Bacon.

Here *it* refers back to the whole sentence before it, or to the idea, "any man's doing wrong merely out of ill nature."

(3) *As a grammatical subject, to stand for the real, logical subject, which follows the verb*; as in the sentences,—

It is easy in the world *to live after the world's opinion*. —Emerson.

It is this *haziness* of intellectual vision which is the malady of all classes of men by nature.—Newman.

It is a pity *that he has so much learning, or that he has not a great deal more*.—Addison.

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(4) *As an impersonal subject in certain expressions which need no other subject*; as,—

It is finger-cold, and prudent farmers get in their barreled apples.—Thoreau.

And when I awoke, *it* rained.—Coleridge.

For when *it* dawned, they dropped their arms.—*Id*.

It was late and after midnight.—De Quincey.

(5) *As an impersonal or indefinite object of a verb or a preposition*; as in the following sentences:—

(*a*) Michael Paw, who *lorded it* over the fair regions of ancient Pavonia.—Irving.

I made up my mind *to foot it*.—Hawthorne.

A sturdy lad ... who in turn tries all the professions, who *teams it, farms it, peddles it*, keeps a school.—Emerson.

(*b*) "Thy mistress leads thee a dog's life *of it*."—Irving.

There was nothing *for it* but to return.—Scott.

An editor has only to say "respectfully declined," and there is an end *of it*.—Holmes.

Poor Christian was hard put *to it*.—Bunyan.

Reflexive use of the personal pronouns.

93. The personal pronouns in the objective case are often used *reflexively*; that is, referring to the same person as the subject of the accompanying verb. For example, we use such expressions as, "I found *me* a good book," "He bought *him* a horse," etc. This reflexive use of the *dative*-objective is very common in spoken and in literary English.

The personal pronouns are not often used reflexively, however, when they are *direct* objects. This occurs in poetry, but seldom in prose; as,—

Now I lay *me* down to sleep.—Anon.

I set *me* down and sigh.—Burns.

And millions in those solitudes, since first The flight of years began, have laid *them* down In their last sleep. —Bryant.

REFLEXIVE OR COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

Composed of the personal pronouns with -self, -selves.

94. The REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS, or COMPOUND PERSONAL, as they are also called, are formed from the personal pronouns by adding the word *self*, and its plural *selves*.

They are *myself*, (*ourself*), *ourselves*, *yourself*, (*thyself*), *yourselves*, *himself*, *herself*, *itself*, *themselves*.

Of the two forms in parentheses, the second is the old form of the second person, used in poetry.

Ourself is used to follow the word *we* when this represents a single person, especially in the speech of rulers; as,—

Methinks he seems no better than a girl; As girls were once, as we *ourself* have been. —Tennyson.

Origin of these reflexives.

95. The question might arise, Why are *himself* and *themselves* not *hisself* and *theirselves*, as in vulgar English, after the analogy of *myself*, *ourselves*, etc.?

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The history of these words shows they are made up of the dative-objective forms, not the possessive forms, with *self*. In Middle English the forms *meself*, *theself*, were changed into the possessive *myself*, *thyself*, and the others were formed by analogy with these. *Himself* and *themselves* are the only ones retaining a distinct objective form.

In the forms *yourself* and *yourselves* we have the possessive *your* marked as singular as well as plural.

Use of the reflexives.

96. There are three uses of reflexive pronouns:—

(1) *As object of a verb or preposition, and referring to the same person or thing as the subject*; as in these sentences from Emerson:—

He who offers *himself* a candidate for that covenant comes up like an Olympian.

I should hate *myself* if then I made my other friends my asylum.

We fill *ourselves* with ancient learning.

What do we know of nature or of *ourselves*?

(2) *To emphasize a noun or pronoun*; for example,—

The great globe *itself* ... shall dissolve.—Shakespeare.

Threats to all; To *you yourself*, to us, to every one. —*Id.*

Who would not sing for Lycidas! he knew *Himself* to sing, and build the lofty rhyme. —Milton.

NOTE.—In such sentences the pronoun is sometimes omitted, and the reflexive modifies the pronoun understood; for example,—

Only *itself* can inspire whom it will.—Emerson.

My hands are full of blossoms plucked before, Held dead within them till *myself* shall die.—E. B. Browning.

As if it were *thyself* that's here, I shrink with pain.—Wordsworth.

(3) *As the precise equivalent of a personal pronoun*; as,—

Lord Altamont designed to take his son and *myself*.—De Quincey.

Victories that neither *myself* nor my cause always deserved.—B. Franklin.

For what else have our forefathers and *ourselves* been taxed?—Landor.

Years ago, Arcturus and *myself* met a gentleman from China who knew the language.—Thackeray.

Exercises on Personal Pronouns.

(*a*) Bring up sentences containing ten personal pronouns, some each of masculine, feminine, and neuter.

(*b*) Bring up sentences containing five personal pronouns in the possessive, some of them being double possessives.

(*c*) Tell which use each *it* has in the following sentences:—

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1.

Come and trip it as we go, On the light fantastic toe.

2. Infancy conforms to nobody; all conform to it.

3. It is an ill wind that blows nobody good.

4. Courage, father, fight it out.

5. And it grew wondrous cold.

6. To know what is best to do, and how to do it, is wisdom.

7. If any phenomenon remains brute and dark, it is because the corresponding faculty in the observer is not yet active.

8. But if a man do not speak from within the veil, where the word is one with that it tells of, let him lowly confess it.

9. It behooved him to keep on good terms with his pupils.

10. Biscuit is about the best thing I know; but it is the soonest spoiled; and one would like to hear counsel on one point, why it is that a touch of water utterly ruins it.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

Three now in use.

97. The interrogative pronouns now in use are *who* (with the forms *whose* and *whom*), *which*, and *what*.

One obsolete.

There is an old word, *whether*, used formerly to mean which of two, but now obsolete. Examples from the Bible:—

Whether of them twain did the will of his father?

Whether is greater, the gold, or the temple?

From Steele (eighteenth century):—

It may be a question *whether* of these unfortunate persons had the greater soul.

Use of who *and its forms.*

98. The use of *who*, with its possessive and objective, is seen in these sentences:—

Who is she in bloody coronation robes from Rheims?—De Quincey.

Whose was that gentle voice, that, whispering sweet, Promised, methought, long days of bliss sincere? —Bowles.

What doth she look on? *Whom* doth she behold?—Wordsworth.

From these sentences it will be seen that interrogative *who* refers to *persons only*; that it is not inflected for gender or number, but for case alone, having three forms; it is always third person, as it always asks *about* somebody.

Use of which.

99. Examples of the use of interrogative *which*:—

Which of these had speed enough to sweep between the question and the answer, and divide the one from the other?—De Quincey.

Which of you, shall we say, doth love us most?—Shakespeare.

Which of them [the sisters] shall I take?—*Id.*

As shown here, *which* is not inflected for gender, number, or case; it refers to either persons or things; it is selective, that is, picks out one or more from a number of known persons or objects.

Use of what.

100. Sentences showing the use of interrogative *what*:—

Since I from Smaylho'me tower have been, *What* did thy lady do? —Scott.

What is so rare as a day in June?—Lowell.

What wouldst thou do, old man?—Shakespeare.

These show that *what* is not inflected for case; that it is always singular and neuter, referring to things, ideas, actions, etc., not to persons.

DECLENSION OF INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

101. The following are all the interrogative forms:—

	SING. AND PLUR.	SING. AND PLUR.	SINGULAR
Nom.	who?	which?	what?
Poss.	whose?	—	—
Obj.	whom?	which?	what?

In spoken English, *who* is used as objective instead of *whom*; as, "*Who* did you see?" "*Who* did he speak to?"

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To tell the case of interrogatives.

102. The interrogative *who* has a separate form for each case, consequently the case can be told by the form of the word; but the case of *which* and *what* must be determined exactly as in nouns,—by the *use* of the words.

For instance, in Sec. 99, *which* is nominative in the first sentence, since it is subject of the verb *had*; nominative in the second also, subject of *doth love*; objective in the last, being the direct object of the verb *shall take*.

Further treatment of who, which *and* what.

103. *Who*, *which*, and *what* are also relative pronouns; *which* and *what* are sometimes adjectives; *what* may be an adverb in some expressions.

They will be spoken of again in the proper places, especially in the treatment of indirect questions (Sec. 127).

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

Function of the relative pronoun.

104. Relative pronouns differ from both personal and interrogative pronouns in referring to an antecedent, and also in having a conjunctive use. The advantage in using them is to unite short statements into longer sentences, and so to make smoother discourse. Thus we may say, "The last of all the Bards was he. These bards sang of Border chivalry." Or, it may be shortened into,—

"The last of all the Bards was he, *Who* sung of Border chivalry."

In the latter sentence, *who* evidently refers to *Bards*, which is called the **antecedent** of the relative.

The antecedent.

105. The **antecedent** of a pronoun is the noun, pronoun, or other word or expression, for which the pronoun stands. It usually precedes the pronoun.

Personal pronouns of the third person may have antecedents also, as they take the place usually of a word already used; as,—

The priest hath *his* fee who comes and shrives us.—Lowell

In this, both *his* and *who* have the antecedent *priest*.

The pronoun *which* may have its antecedent following, and the antecedent may be a word or a group of words, as will be shown in the remarks on *which* below.

Two kinds.

106. Relatives may be SIMPLE or INDEFINITE.

When the word *relative* is used, a simple relative is meant. Indefinite relatives, and the indefinite use of simple relatives, will be discussed further on.

The SIMPLE RELATIVES are *who*, *which*, *that*, *what*.

Who *and its forms.*

107. Examples of the relative *who* and its forms:—

1. Has a man gained anything *who* has received a hundred favors and rendered none?—Emerson.

2. That man is little to be envied *whose* patriotism would not gain force upon the plain of Marathon.—Dr Johnson.

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3.

For her enchanting son, *Whom* universal nature did lament. —Milton.

4. The nurse came to us, *who* were sitting in an adjoining apartment.—Thackeray.

5.

Ye mariners of England, That guard our native seas; *Whose* flag has braved, a thousand years, The battle and the breeze! —Campbell.

6. The men *whom* men respect, the women *whom* women approve, are the men and women *who* bless their species.—Parton

Which *and its forms.*

108. Examples of the relative *which* and its forms:—

1. They had not their own luster, but the look *which* is not of the earth.—Byron.

2.

The embattled portal arch he pass'd, *Whose* ponderous grate and massy bar Had oft roll'd back the tide of war. —Scott.

3. Generally speaking, the dogs *which* stray around the butcher shops restrain their appetites.—Cox.

4. The origin of language is divine, in the same sense in *which* man's nature, with all its capabilities ..., is a divine creation.—W. D. Whitney.

5.

(*a*) This gradation ... ought to be kept in view; else this description will seem exaggerated, *which* it certainly is not.—Burke.

(*b*) The snow was three inches deep and still falling, *which* prevented him from taking his usual ride.—Irving.

That.

109. Examples of the relative *that*:—

1.

The man *that* hath no music in himself,... Is fit for treasons, stratagems, and spoils. —Shakespeare

2. The judge ... bought up all the pigs *that* could be had.—Lamb

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3. Nature and books belong to the eyes *that* see them.—Emerson.

4. For the sake of country a man is told to yield everything *that* makes the land honorable.—H. W. Beecher

5. Reader, *that* do not pretend to have leisure for very much scholarship, you will not be angry with me for telling you.—De Quincey.

6. The Tree Igdrasil, *that* has its roots down in the kingdoms of Hela and Death, and whose boughs overspread the highest heaven!—Carlyle.

What.

110. Examples of the use of the relative *what*:—

1. Its net to entangle the enemy seems to be *what* it chiefly trusts to, and *what* it takes most pains to render as complete as possible.—Goldsmith.

2. For *what* he sought below is passed above, Already done is all that he would do.—Margaret Fuller.

3. Some of our readers may have seen in India a crowd of crows picking a sick vulture to death, no bad type of *what* often happens in that country.—Macaulay

[*To the Teacher*.—If pupils work over the above sentences carefully, and test every remark in the following paragraphs, they will get a much better understanding of the relatives.]

REMARKS ON THE RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

Who.

111. By reading carefully the sentences in Sec. 107, the following facts will be noticed about the relative *who*:—

(1) It usually refers to persons: thus, in the first sentence, Sec. 107, *a man...who*; in the second, *that man...whose*; in the third, *son*, *whom*; and so on.

(2) It has three case forms,—*who*, *whose*, *whom*.

(3) The forms do not change for person or number of the antecedent. In sentence 4, *who* is first person; in 5, *whose* is second person; the others are all third person. In 1, 2, and 3, the relatives are singular; in 4, 5, and 6, they are plural.

Who *referring to animals*.

112. Though in most cases *who* refers to persons there are instances found where it refers to animals. It has been seen (Sec. 24) that animals are referred to by personal pronouns when their characteristics or habits are such as to render them important or interesting to man. Probably on the same principle the personal relative *who* is used not infrequently in literature, referring to animals.

Witness the following examples:—

And you, warm little housekeeper [the cricket], *who* class With those who think the candles come too soon.—Leigh Hunt.

The robins...have succeeded in driving off the bluejays *who* used to build in our pines.—Lowell.

The little gorilla, *whose* wound I had dressed, flung its arms around my neck.—Thackeray.

A lake frequented by every fowl *whom* Nature has taught to dip the wing in water.—Dr. Johnson.

While we had such plenty of domestic insects *who* infinitely excelled the former, because they understood how to weave as well as to spin.—Swift.

My horse, *who*, under his former rider had hunted the buffalo, seemed as much excited as myself.—Irving.

Other examples might be quoted from Burke, Kingsley, Smollett, Scott, Cooper, Gibbon, and others.

Which.

113. The sentences in Sec. 108 show that—

(1) *Which* refers to animals, things, or ideas, not persons.

(2) It is not inflected for gender or number.

(3) It is nearly always third person, rarely second (an example of its use as second person is given in sentence 32, p. 96).

(4) It has two case forms,—*which* for the nominative and objective, *whose* for the possessive.

Examples of whose, *possessive case of* which.

114. Grammarians sometimes object to the statement that *whose* is the possessive of *which*, saying that the phrase *of which* should always be used instead; yet a search in literature shows that the possessive form *whose* is quite common in prose as well as in poetry: for example,—

I swept the horizon, and saw at one glance the glorious elevations, on *whose* tops the sun kindled all the melodies and harmonies of light.—Beecher.

Men may be ready to fight to the death, and to persecute without pity, for a religion *whose* creed they do not understand, and *whose* precepts they habitually disobey.—Macaulay

Beneath these sluggish waves lay the once proud cities of the plain, *whose* grave was dug by the thunder of the heavens.—Scott.

Many great and opulent cities *whose* population now exceeds that of Virginia during the Revolution, and *whose* names are spoken in the remotest corner of the civilized world.—Mcmaster.

Through the heavy door *whose* bronze network closes the place of his rest, let us enter the church itself.—Ruskin.

This moribund '61, *whose* career of life is just coming to its terminus.—Thackeray.

So in Matthew Arnold, Kingsley, Burke, and numerous others.

Which *and its antecedents*.

115. The last two sentences in Sec. 108 show that *which* may have other antecedents than nouns and pronouns. In 5 (*a*) there is a participial adjective used as the antecedent; in 5 (*b*) there is a complete clause employed as antecedent. This often occurs.

Sometimes, too, the antecedent follows *which*; thus,—

And, which is worse, *all you have done Hath been but for a wayward son*. —Shakespeare.

Primarily, which is very notable and curious, I observe that *men of business rarely know the meaning of the word "rich*."—Ruskin.

I demurred to this honorary title upon two grounds,—first, as being one toward which I had no natural aptitudes or predisposing advantages; secondly (which made her stare), *as carrying with it no real or enviable distinction*.—De Quincey.

That.

116. In the sentences of Sec. 109, we notice that—

(1) *That* refers to persons, animals, and things.

(2) It has only one case form, no possessive.

(3) It is the same form for first, second, and third persons.

(4) It has the same form for singular and plural.

It sometimes borrows the possessive *whose*, as in sentence 6, Sec. 109, but this is not sanctioned as good usage.

What.

117. The sentences of Sec. 110 show that—

(1) *What* always refers to things; is always neuter.

(2) It is used almost entirely in the singular.

(3) Its antecedent is hardly ever expressed. When expressed, it usually follows, and is emphatic; as, for example,—

What I would, *that* do I not; but what I hate, *that* do I.—*Bible*

What fates impose, *that* men must needs abide.—Shakespeare.

What a man does, *that* he has.—Emerson.

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Compare this:—

Alas! is *it* not too true, what we said?—Carlyle.

DECLENSION OF RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

118. These are the forms of the simple relatives:—

SINGULAR AND PLURAL.

Nom.	who	which	that	what
Poss.	whose	whose	—	—
Obj.	whom	which	that	what

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HOW TO PARSE RELATIVES.

119. The *gender*, *number*, and *person* of the relatives *who*, *which*, and *that* must be determined by those of the antecedent; the *case* depends upon the function of the relative in its own clause.

For example, consider the following sentence:

"He uttered truths *that* wrought upon and molded the lives of those *who* heard him."

Since the relatives hold the sentence together, we can, by taking them out, let the sentence fall apart into three divisions: (1) "He uttered truths;" (2) "The truths wrought upon and molded the lives of the people;" (3) "These people heard him."

That evidently refers to *truths*, consequently is neuter, third person, plural number. *Who* plainly stands for *those* or *the people*, either of which would be neuter, third person, plural number. Here the relative agrees with its antecedent.

We cannot say the relative agrees with its antecedent in *case*. *Truths* in sentence (2), above, is subject of *wrought upon and molded*; in (1), it is object of *uttered*. In (2), *people* is the object of the preposition *of*; in (3), it is subject of the verb *heard*. Now, *that* takes the case of *the truths* in (2), not of *truths* which is expressed in the sentence: consequently *that* is in the nominative case. In the same way *who*, standing for *the people* understood, subject of *heard*, is in the nominative case.

Exercise.

First find the antecedents, then parse the relatives, in the following sentences:—

1. How superior it is in these respects to the pear, whose blossoms are neither colored nor fragrant!

2. Some gnarly apple which I pick up in the road reminds me by its fragrance of all the wealth of Pomona.

3. Perhaps I talk with one who is selecting some choice barrels for filling an order.

4. Ill blows the wind that profits nobody.

5. Alas! it is we ourselves that are getting buried alive under this avalanche of earthly impertinences.

6. This method also forces upon us the necessity of thinking, which is, after all, the highest result of all education.

7. I know that there are many excellent people who object to the reading of novels as a waste of time.

8. I think they are trying to outwit nature, who is sure to be cunninger than they.

Parsing what, *the simple relative*.

120. The relative *what* is handled differently, because it has usually no antecedent, but is singular, neuter, third person. Its case is determined exactly as that of other relatives. In the sentence, "What can't be cured must be endured," the verb *must be endured* is the predicate of something. What must be endured? Answer, *What can't be cured*. The whole expression is its subject. The word *what*, however, is subject of the verb *can't be cured*, and hence is in the nominative case.

"What we call nature is a certain self-regulated motion or change." Here the subject of *is*, etc., is *what we call nature*; but of this, *we* is the subject, and *what* is the direct object of the verb *call*, so is in the objective case.

Another way.

Some prefer another method of treatment. As shown by the following sentences, *what* is equivalent to *that which*:—

It has been said that "common souls pay with *what* they do, nobler souls with *that which* they are."—Emerson.

That which is pleasant often appears under the name of evil; and *what* is disagreeable to nature is called good and virtuous.—Burke.

Hence some take *what* as a double relative, and parse *that* in the first clause, and *which* in the second clause; that is, "common souls pay with *that* [singular, object of *with*] *which* [singular, object of *do*] they do."

INDEFINITE RELATIVES.

List and examples.

121. INDEFINITE RELATIVES are, by meaning and use, not as direct as the simple relatives.

They are *whoever*, *whichever*, *whatever*, *whatsoever*; less common are *whoso*, *whosoever*, *whichsoever*, *whatsoever*. The simple relatives *who*, *which*, and *what* may also be used as indefinite relatives. Examples of indefinite relatives (from Emerson):—

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1. *Whoever* has flattered his friend successfully must at once think himself a knave, and his friend a fool.

2. It is no proof of a man's understanding, to be able to affirm *whatever* he pleases.

3. They sit in a chair or sprawl with children on the floor, or stand on their head, or *what* else *soever*, in a new and original way.

4. *Whoso* is heroic will always find crises to try his edge.

5. Only itself can inspire *whom* it will.

6. God offers to every mind its choice between truth and repose. Take *which* you please,—you cannot have both.

7. Do *what* we can, summer will have its flies.

Meaning and use.

122. The fitness of the term *indefinite* here cannot be shown better than by examining the following sentences:—

1. There is something so overruling in *whatever* inspires us with awe, in *all things which* belong ever so remotely to terror, that nothing else can stand in their presence.—Burke.

2. Death is there associated, not with *everything that* is most endearing in social and domestic charities, but with *whatever* is darkest in human nature and in human destiny.—Macaulay.

It is clear that in 1, *whatever* is equivalent to *all things which*, and in 2, to *everything that*; no certain antecedent, no particular thing, being referred to. So with the other indefinites.

What *simple relative and* what *indefinite relative*.

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123. The above helps us to discriminate between *what* as a simple and *what* as an indefinite relative.

As shown in Sec. 120, the simple relative *what* is equivalent to *that which* or the *thing which*,—some particular thing; as shown by the last sentence in Sec. 121, *what* means *anything that*, *everything that* (or *everything which*). The difference must be seen by the meaning of the sentence, as *what* hardly ever has an antecedent.

The examples in sentences 5 and 6, Sec. 121, show that *who* and *which* have no antecedent expressed, but mean *any one whom*, *either one that*, etc.

OTHER WORDS USED AS RELATIVES.

But *and* as.

124. Two words, **but** and **as**, are used with the force of relative pronouns in some expressions; for example,—

1. There is not a leaf rotting on the highway *but* has force in it: how else could it rot?—Carlyle.

2. This, amongst such other troubles *as* most men meet with in this life, has been my heaviest affliction.—De Quincey.

Proof that they have the force of relatives.

Compare with these the two following sentences:—

3. There is nothing *but* is related to us, nothing *that* does *not* interest us.—Emerson.

4. There were articles of comfort and luxury such *as* Hester never ceased to use, but *which* only wealth could have purchased.—Hawthorne.

Sentence 3 shows that *but* is equivalent to the relative *that* with *not*, and that *as* after *such* is equivalent to *which*.

For *as* after *same* see "Syntax" (Sec. 417).

Former use of as.

125. In early modern English, *as* was used just as we use *that* or *which*, not following the word *such*; thus,—

I have not from your eyes that gentleness And show of love *as* I was wont to have. —Shakespeare

This still survives in vulgar English in England; for example,—

"Don't you mind Lucy Passmore, *as* charmed your warts for you when you was a boy? "—Kingsley

This is frequently illustrated in Dickens's works.

Other substitutes.

126. Instead of the phrases *in which*, *upon which*, *by which*, etc., the conjunctions *wherein*, *whereupon*, *whereby*, etc., are used.

A man is the facade of a temple *wherein* all wisdom and good abide.—Emerson.

The sovereignty of this nature *whereof* we speak.—*Id.*

The dear home faces *whereupon* That fitful firelight paled and shone. —Whittier.

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PRONOUNS IN INDIRECT QUESTIONS.

Special caution needed here.

127. It is sometimes hard for the student to tell a relative from an interrogative pronoun. In the regular direct question the interrogative is easily recognized; so is the relative when an antecedent is close by. But compare the following in pairs:—

1.

(*a*) Like a gentleman of leisure *who* is strolling out for pleasure.

(*b*) Well we knew *who* stood behind, though the earthwork hid them.

2.

(*a*) But *what* you gain in time is perhaps lost in power.

(*b*) But *what* had become of them they knew not.

3.

(*a*) These are the lines *which* heaven-commanded Toil shows on his deed.

(*b*) And since that time I thought it not amiss To judge *which* were the best of all these three.

In sentences 1 (*a*), 2 (*a*) and 3 (*a*) the regular relative use is seen; *who* having the antecedent *gentleman*, *what* having the double use of pronoun and antecedent, *which* having the antecedent *lines*.

But in 1 (*b*), 2 (*b*), and 3 (*b*), there are two points of difference from the others considered: first, no antecedent is expressed, which would indicate that they are not relatives; second, a question is disguised in each sentence, although each sentence as a whole is declarative in form. Thus, 1 (*b*), if expanded, would be, "Who stood behind? We knew," etc., showing that *who* is plainly interrogative. So in 2 (*b*), *what* is interrogative, the full expression being, "But what had become of them? They knew not." Likewise with *which* in 3 (*b*).

How to decide.

In studying such sentences, (1) see whether there is an antecedent of *who* or *which*, and whether *what* = *that* + *which* (if so, it is a simple relative; if not, it is either an indefinite relative or an interrogative pronoun); (2) see if the pronoun introduces an indirect question (if it does, it is an interrogative; if not, it is an indefinite relative).

Another caution.

128. On the other hand, care must be taken to see whether the pronoun is the word that really *asks the question* in an interrogative sentence. Examine the following:—

1.

Sweet rose! whence is this hue *Which* doth all hues excel? —Drummond

2.

And then what wonders shall you do *Whose* dawning beauty warms us so? —Walker

3.

Is this a romance? Or is it a faithful picture of *what* has lately been in a neighboring land?—Macaulay

These are interrogative sentences, but in none of them does the pronoun ask the question. In the first, *whence* is the interrogative word, *which* has the antecedent *hue*. In the second, *whose* has the antecedent *you*, and asks no question. In the third, the question is asked by the verb.

OMISSION OF THE RELATIVES.

Relative omitted when object.

129. The relative is frequently omitted in spoken and in literary English when it would be the object of a preposition or a verb. Hardly a writer can be found who does not leave out relatives in this way when they can be readily supplied in the mind of the reader. Thus,—

These are the sounds we feed upon.—Fletcher.

I visited many other apartments, but shall not trouble my reader with all the curiosities I observed.—Swift.

Exercise.

Put in the relatives *who*, *which*, or *that* where they are omitted from the following sentences, and see whether the sentences are any smoother or clearer:—

1. The insect I am now describing lived three years,—Goldsmith.

2. They will go to Sunday schools through storms their brothers are afraid of.—Holmes.

3. He opened the volume he first took from the shelf.—G. Eliot.

4. He could give the coals in that queer coal scuttle we read of to his poor neighbor.—Thackeray.

5. When Goldsmith died, half the unpaid bill he owed to Mr. William Filby was for clothes supplied to his nephew.—Forster

6. The thing I want to see is not Redbook Lists, and Court Calendars, but the life of man in England.—Carlyle.

7. The material they had to work upon was already democratical by instinct and habitude.—Lowell.

Relative omitted when subject.

130. We often hear in spoken English expressions like these:—

There isn't one here ˆ knows how to play ball.

There was such a crowd ˆ went, the house was full.

Here the omitted relative would be in the nominative case. Also in literary English we find the same omission. It is rare in prose, and comparatively so in poetry. Examples are,—

The silent truth that it was she was superior.—Thackeray

I have a mind presages me such thrift.—Shakespeare.

There is a nun in Dryburgh bower, Ne'er looks upon the sun. —Scott.

And you may gather garlands there Would grace a summer queen. —*Id.*

'Tis distance lends enchantment to the view.—Campbell.

Exercises on the Relative Pronoun.

(*a*) Bring up sentences containing ten instances of the relatives *who*, *which*, *that*, and *what*.

(*b*) Bring up sentences having five indefinite relatives.

(*c*) Bring up five sentences having indirect questions introduced by pronouns.

(*d*) Tell whether the pronouns in the following are interrogatives, simple relatives, or indefinite relatives:—

1. He ushered him into one of the wherries which lay ready to attend the Queen's barge, which was already proceeding.

2. The nobles looked at each other, but more with the purpose to see what each thought of the news, than to exchange any remarks on what had happened.

3. Gracious Heaven! who was this that knew the word?

4. It needed to be ascertained which was the strongest kind of men; who were to be rulers over whom.

5. He went on speaking to who would listen to him.

6. What kept me silent was the thought of my mother.

ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

Function of adjective pronouns.

131. Most of the words how to be considered are capable of a double use,—they may be pure modifiers of nouns, or they may stand for nouns. In the first use they are adjectives; in the second they retain an adjective *meaning*, but have lost their adjective *use*. Primarily they are adjectives, but in this function, or use, they are properly classed as adjective pronouns.

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The following are some examples of these:—

Some say that the place was bewitched.—Irving.

That mysterious realm where *each* shall take His chamber in the silent halls of death. —Bryant.

How happy is he born or taught That serveth not *another's* will. —Wotton

That is more than any martyr can stand.—Emerson.

Caution.

Adjectives, not pronouns.

Hence these words are like adjectives used as nouns, which we have seen in such expressions as, "*The dead* are there;" that is, a word, in order to be an adjective pronoun, *must not modify any*

word, expressed or understood. It must come under the requirement of pronouns, and *stand for a noun*. For instance, in the following sentences—"The cubes are of stainless ivory, and on *each* is written, in letters of gold, '*Truth*;'" "You needs must play such pranks as *these*;" "They will always have one bank to sun themselves upon, and *another* to get cool under;" "Where two men ride on a horse, *one* must ride behind"—the words italicized modify nouns understood, necessarily thought of: thus, in the first, "each *cube*;" in the second, "these *pranks*," in the others, "another *bank*," "one *man*."

Classes of adjective pronouns.

132. Adjective pronouns are divided into three classes:—

(1) DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS, such as *this*, *that*, *the former*, etc.

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(2) DISTRIBUTIVE PRONOUNS, such as *each*, *either*, *neither*, etc.

(3) NUMERAL PRONOUNS, as *some*, *any*, *few*, *many*, *none*, *all*, etc.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

Definition and examples.

133. A DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUN is one that definitely points out what persons or things are alluded to in the sentence.

The person or thing alluded to by the demonstrative may be in another sentence, or may be the whole of a sentence. For example, "Be *that* as it may" could refer to a sentiment in a sentence, or an

argument in a paragraph; but the demonstrative clearly points to that thing.

The following are examples of demonstratives:—

I did not say *this* in so many words.

All *these* he saw; but what he fain had seen He could not see.

Beyond *that* I seek not to penetrate the veil.

How much we forgive in *those* who yield us the rare spectacle of heroic manners!

The correspondence of Bonaparte with his brother Joseph, when *the latter* was the King of Spain.

Such are a few isolated instances, accidentally preserved.

Even as I have seen, they that plow iniquity, and sow wickedness, reap *the same*.

They know that patriotism has its glorious opportunities and its sacred duties. They have not shunned *the one*, and they have well performed *the other*.

NOTE.—It will be noticed in the first four sentences that *this* and *that* are inflected for number.

Exercises.

(*a*) Find six sentences using demonstrative adjective pronouns.

(*b*) In which of the following is *these* a pronoun?—

1. Formerly the duty of a librarian was to keep people as much as possible from the books, and to hand *these* over to his successor as little worn as he could.—Lowell.

2. They had fewer books, but *these* were of the best.—*Id.*

3. A man inspires affection and honor, because he was not lying in wait for *these*.—Emerson

4. Souls such as *these* treat you as gods would.—*Id.*

5. *These* are the first mountains that broke the uniform level of the earth's surface.—Agassiz

DISTRIBUTIVE PRONOUNS.

Definition and examples.

134. The DISTRIBUTIVE PRONOUNS are those which stand for the names of persons or things considered singly.

Simple.

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Some of these are *simple* pronouns; for example,—

They stood, or sat, or reclined, as seemed good to *each*.

As two yoke devils sworn to *other's* purpose.

Their minds accorded into one strain, and made delightful music which *neither* could have claimed as all his own.

Compound.

Two are compound pronouns,—*each other*, *one another*. They may be separated into two adjective pronouns; as,

We violated our reverence *each* for *the other's* soul. —Hawthorne.

More frequently they are considered as one pronoun.

They led one another, as it were, into a high pavilion of their thoughts.—Hawthorne.

Men take each other's measure when they react.—Emerson.

Exercise.—Find sentences containing three distributive pronouns.

NUMERAL PRONOUNS.

Definition and examples.

135. The NUMERAL PRONOUNS are those which stand for an uncertain number or quantity of persons or things.

The following sentences contain numeral pronouns:—

Trusting too much to *others'* care is the ruin of *many*.

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'Tis of no importance how large his house, you quickly come to the end of *all*.

Another opposes him with sound argument.

It is as if *one* should be so enthusiastic a lover of poetry as to care nothing for Homer or Milton.

There were plenty *more* for him to fall in company with, as *some* of the rangers had gone astray.

The Soldan, imbued, as *most* were, with the superstitions of his time, paused over a horoscope.

If those [taxes] were the only *ones* we had to pay, we might the more easily discharge them.

Much might be said on both sides.

If hand of mine *another's* task has lightened. It felt the guidance that it does not claim. So perish *all* whose breast ne'er learned to glow For *others*' good, or melt for *others*' woe.

None shall rule but the humble.

Some inflected.

It will be noticed that some of these are inflected for case and number; such as *one other*, *another*.

The word *one* has a reflexive form; for example,—

One *reflexive*.

The best way to punish *oneself* for doing ill seems to me to go and do good.—Kingsley.

The lines sound so prettily to *one's self*.—Holmes.

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Exercise.—Find sentences containing ten numeral pronouns.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

Definition and examples.

136. Indefinite pronouns are words which stand for an indefinite number or quantity of persons or things; but, unlike adjective pronouns, they are never used as adjectives.

Most of them are compounds of two or more words:—

List.

Somebody, *some one*, *something*; *anybody*, *any one* (or *anyone*), *anything*; *everybody*, *every one* (or *everyone*), *everything*; *nobody*, *no one*, *nothing*; *somebody else*, *anyone*

else, *everybody else*, *every one else*, etc.; also *aught*, *naught*; and *somewhat*, *what*, and *they*.

The following sentences contain indefinite pronouns:—

As he had them of all hues, he hoped to fit *everybody's* fancy.

Every one knows how laborious the usual method is of attaining to arts and sciences.

Nothing sheds more honor on our early history than the impression which these measures everywhere produced in America.

Let us also perform *something* worthy to be remembered.

William of Orange was more than *anything else* a religious man.

Frederick was discerned to be a purchaser of *everything* that *nobody else* would buy.

These other souls draw me as *nothing else* can.

The genius that created it now creates *somewhat else*.

Every one else stood still at his post.

That is perfectly true: I did not want *anybody else's* authority to write as I did.

They indefinite means people in general; as,—

At lovers' perjuries, *they* say, Jove laughs.—Shakespeare.

What indefinite is used in the expression "I tell you *what*." It means *something*, and was indefinite in Old English.

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Now, in building of chaises, I tell you *what*, There is always somewhere a weakest spot.

Exercise.—Find sentences with six indefinite pronouns.

137. Some indefinite pronouns are inflected for case, as shown in the words *everybody's*, *anybody else's*, etc.

See also "Syntax" (Sec. 426) as to the possessive case of the forms with *else*.

HOW TO PARSE PRONOUNS.

A reminder.

138. In **parsing** pronouns the student will need particularly to guard against the mistake of parsing words according to *form* instead of according to function or use.

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Exercise.

Parse in full the pronouns in the following sentences:—

1. She could not help laughing at the vile English into which they were translated.

2. Our readers probably remember what Mrs. Hutchinson tells us of herself.

3. Whoever deals with M. de Witt must go the plain way that he pretends to, in his negotiations.

4. Some of them from whom nothing was to be got, were suffered to depart; but those from whom it was thought that anything could be extorted were treated with execrable cruelty.

5. All was now ready for action.

6. Scarcely had the mutiny broken up when he was himself again.

7. He came back determined to put everything to the hazard.

8. Nothing is more clear than that a general ought to be the servant of his government, and of no other.

9. Others did the same thing, but not to quite so enormous an extent.

10. On reaching the approach to this about sunset of a beautiful evening in June, I first found myself among the mountains,—a feature of natural scenery for which, from my earliest days, it was not extravagant to say that I hungered and thirsted.

11. I speak of that part which chiefly it is that I know.

12. A smaller sum I had given to my friend the attorney (who was connected with the money lenders as their lawyer), to which, indeed, he was entitled for his unfurnished lodgings.

13. Whatever power the law gave them would be enforced against me to the utmost.

14. O thou that rollest above, round as the shield of my fathers!

15. But there are more than you ever heard of who die of grief in this island of ours.

16. But amongst themselves is no voice nor sound.

17. For this did God send her a great reward.

18. The table was good; but that was exactly what Kate cared little about.

19. Who and what was Milton? That is to say, what is the place which he fills in his own vernacular literature?

20. These hopes are mine as much as theirs.

21. What else am I who laughed or wept yesterday, who slept last night like a corpse?

22. I who alone am, I who see nothing in nature whose existence I can affirm with equal evidence to my own, behold now the semblance of my being, in all its height, variety, and curiosity reiterated in a foreign form.

23.

What hand but would a garland cull For thee who art so beautiful?

24.

And I had done a hellish thing, And it would work 'em woe.

25. Whatever he knows and thinks, whatever in his apprehension is worth doing, that let him communicate.

26. Rip Van Winkle was one of those foolish, well-oiled dispositions, who take the world easy, eat white bread or brown, whichever can be got with least thought or trouble.

27.

And will your mother pity me, Who am a maiden most forlorn?

28.

They know not I knew thee, Who knew thee too well.

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29.

I did remind thee of our own dear Lake, By the old Hall which may be mine no more.

30.

He sate him down, and seized a pen, and traced Words which I could not guess of.

31.

Time writes no wrinkle on thine azure brow: Such as creation's dawn beheld, thou rollest now.

32.

Wild Spirit which art moving everywhere; Destroyer and preserver; hear, oh, hear!

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33. A smile of hers was like an act of grace.

34. No man can learn what he has not preparation for learning.

35. What can we see or acquire but what we are?

36. He teaches who gives, and he learns who receives.

37. We are by nature observers; that is our permanent state.

38. He knew not what to do, and so he read.

39. Who hears me, who understands me, becomes mine.

40. The men who carry their points do not need to inquire of their constituents what they should say.

41. Higher natures overpower lower ones by affecting them with a certain sleep.

42. Those who live to the future must always appear selfish to those who live to the present.

43. I am sorry when my independence is invaded or when a gift comes from such as do not know my spirit.

44. Here I began to howl and scream abominably, which was no bad step towards my liberation.

45. The only aim of the war is to see which is the stronger of the two—which is the master.

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